This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

+ *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.

+ *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.

+ *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.

+ *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at `http://books.google.com/`

052
M789
[2d ser.]

LELAND·STANFORD·JVNIOR·VNIVERSITY

052
M789
[2d ser.]

LELAND·STANFORD·JVNIOR·VNIVERSITY

7.0.197
~~11.6.6~~

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
OR
LITERARY JOURNAL,
ENLARGED:

From MAY to AUGUST, *inclusive*,

M,DCCC,XXIII.

With an APPENDIX.

> " *Qualem commendes, etiam atque etiam adspice, ne mox*
> *Incutiant aliena tibi peccata pudorem.*" Hor. Ep. I. 76.

VOLUME CI.

LONDON:
Printed by A. and R. Spottiswoode, New-Street-Square;
And sold by J. PORTER, Successor to the late T. BECKET,
in Pall-Mall.
M,DCCC,XXIII.

TABLE

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications [illegible] Volume.

N.B. For the [illegible] Criticisms and Extracts [illegible] Volume.

251294

For the [illegible] Dissertations, or other [illegible] Memoirs and Transactions [illegible] at Home or on the Conti[illegible] Dissertations, &c., of which [illegible] —see the Index, printed at [illegible] Vol.

STANFORD LIBRARY

A

ADVICE from the Throne, by Frederick the Great, 489

African Institution, Sixteenth Report of, 109

Agnes of France, a Romance, 544

Amusement, Rational, for Winter-Evenings, 221

Ants, Republic of, a Poem, 99

Appeal in Behalf of Negro Slaves, 127

Arnaut, &c. — New Biography. Vols. VII—IX., 509

Astronomy, Lectures on, 219

Augus — Frederick's Advice from the Throne, 489

B

Bailey's Grimaldi, a Tragedy, 19

Balbi's Statistical Essay on Portugal, 463

Baldwin's Remedy for the Plague, 982

Balme's Observations on Contagion, 514

Banks's English Master, 430

Belfast, History of, 440

Biography, new, Vols. VII—IX., 509

Blaquiere's Edition of Pecchio's Anecdotes of the Spanish Revolution, 63

Blunt's Vestiges of antient Manners in Italy, 146

Bonaparte, See Las Cases.

Booth's

TABLE

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review, — see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

A

ADVICE from the Throne, by Frederick the Great, 489
African Institution, Sixteenth Report of, 109
Agnes of France, a Romance, 544
Amusement, Rational, for Winter-Evenings, 221
Ants, Republic of, a Poem, 99
Appeal in Behalf of Negro Slaves, 127
Arnaut, &c. — New Biography, Vols. VII—IX., 509
Astronomy, Lectures on, 219
Auguis — Frederick's Advice from the Throne, 489

B

Bailey's Grimaldi, a Tragedy, 19
Balbi's Statistical Essay on Portugal, 463
Baldwin's Remedy for the Plague, 282
Balme's Observations on Contagion, 514
Banks's English Master, 430
Belfast, History of, 440
Biography, new, Vols. VII—IX., 509
Blaquiere's Edition of Pecchio's Anecdotes of the Spanish Revolution, 68
Blunt's Vestiges of antient Manners in Italy, 146
Bonaparte, See Las Cases.

Booth's Sebastian, a Tragedy, 436
Bowring's Matins and Vespers, 249
Brazil, History of, Part III., 326
Britton's History and Antiquities of Lichfield, Oxford, and Canterbury Cathedrals, 272
Burckhardt's Travels in Syria, &c., *Article concluded*, 1
Byron's (Lord) Island, a Poem, 316
———'s Don Juan, Cantos VI—VIII. *ib.*

C

Canterbury Cathedral, History of, 272
Cathedrals, History and Antiquities of those of Lichfield, Oxford, and Canterbury, 272
Chamouni, Vale of, a Poem, 15
Character, Outlines of, 107
Church, established, in Ireland, Observations on, 98
Clontarf, a Poem, 212
Coldwell's Psalms, 103
———'s Fables and Moral Poems, *ib.*
Collet's Relics of Literature, 352
Conchology, Linnéan System of, 439
Confederation of the Rhine, History of, 312
Contagion, Observations and Reflections on, 514
Cornwall's Flood of Thessaly, &c., 50
*** Correspondence *with the Reviewers*, 112. 224. 336. 447.
Cortes, Theory of, 519
Crystallography, Treatise on, 504
Curiosities of Literature, Second Series, 254

D

December Tales, 442
De Pradt's Parallel between the English and the Russian Power, 482
D'Israeli's Second Series of the Curiosities of Literature, 254
Dods's Physician's Guide, 323
Don Juan, Cantos VI—VIII., 316
D'Ormond, Duke, a Tragedy, 292
Downes's Letters from Mecklenburgh, 62
Drummond's Clontarf, a Poem, 212
Duke D'Ormond, a Tragedy, 292
Duke of Mantua, a Tragedy, 434
Dupont's Translation of Guazzaroni's Italian Grammar, 218
Dwyer's Translation of the History of the Confederation of the Rhine, 312

E

Edmonstone's (Sir Archibald) [illegible] to the Queen, 160
Edward and Marguerite, a [illegible], [illegible]
Elia ;—Essays, [illegible]
Ellen Gray, a Poem, [illegible]
Eloquence, ancient, Beauties of, [illegible]
Emperors, Philosophical History of, *Article concluded*, 333
Enchanted Flute, a Poem, [illegible]
England, History of, [illegible]
English Master, 430
Epitaph, a Novel, 544
Essay on the Political Economy of Nations, 329
Evans's Edition of Richards's Welsh Nonconformist's Memorial, [illegible]

F

Fables, and Moral Poems, 103
Faulkner's (Sir A.) History of the Plague, 282
Field-Sports in India, Sketches of, 265
Fleury's Translation of Marina's Theory of the Cortes, 519
Flood of Thessaly, a Poem, 50
Forman's Remarks on the Tides, 333
Foscolo's Essays on Petrarch, 383
France, King of, his Narrative of his Journey to Brussels, 221
Frederick the Great, his Advice from the Throne, 489
Free-Masonry, Antiquities of, 444
Friendship, Pleasures of, 106
Fudge Family in England, 101

G

Garcilasso de la Vega, Works of, 400
Garden, modern English, 104
Gell's (Sir William) Narrative of a Journey in the Morea, 405
Geological Society, Transactions of, Series II., Vol. I., 225
Germany, View of, 360
———, Travels in, 367
Gölis on the *Hydrocephalus Acutus*, 72
Gonsalvo, a Tragedy, 102
Gooch's Translation of Gölis on the *Hydrocephalus Acutus*, 72
Grimaldi, a Tragedy, 19
Grinders, History of, 108
Guazzaroni's Italian Grammar, 218
Gwilt's Sciography, 332

H

Hancock's Researches into the Laws of Pestilence, 282
Haüy, Abbé, his Treatise on Crystallography, 504
Hazlitt's Table-Talk, 54
Heir of Foix, a dramatic Poem, 322
Hillary's (Sir William) Appeal on an Institution for the Preservation of Lives against Shipwreck, 443
Hints to Mothers, 106
History, Modern, Lectures on, Vols. III. and IV., 327
——— of the Town of Belfast, 440
———, See *Southey*, *Markham*, *Partington*, *Britton*, *Toulotte*, *Miller*.
Hodgskin's Travels in Germany, 367
Holmes's Account of the United States, 304
Hortus Anglicus, 104
Hughes's (Mrs.) Life of William Penn, 106
Hydrocephalus Acutus, Treatise on, 72

I and J

Jackson's Rational Amusement for Winter-Evenings, 221
Jacob's View of Germany, 360
James's Expedition to the Rocky Mountains, 337
Jenner's Letter to Parry, on Artificial Eruptions, 32
Jennings's Lecture on Literary Institutions, 223
Illustrations of the Waverley Novels, 442
India, Field-Sports in, 265
Ingram's System of Mensuration, 220
Institutions, Literary, Lecture on, 223
Johnson's Sketches of Field-Sports in India, 265
Joplin's Outlines of Political Economy, 416
Journey to the Oases, 160
Ireland, Travels in, 239
———, Views of, 246
———, Physicians of, their Transactions, Vol. III., 372
Irritations, Intermittent, Essay on, 498
Island, a Poem, 316
Italian Grammar, 218
Italy, Vestiges of antient Manners in, 146

K

King Edward and Queen Marguerite, a tragic Poem, 102
Kirke White, See *White*

L

Lamb's Elia, or Essays, [illegible]
Las Cases, Count, his Journal of the Life, &c., of Napoleon, *Article concluded*, 78
Letters from a Lady to her Niece, 218
Lichfield Cathedral, History of, [illegible]
Linnéan Society at Paris, Memoir of, 449
Literature, Curiosities of, Series II., 254
———, Relics of, 352
Lives of learned and eminent Men, 107
Lloyd's Duke D'Ormond, a Tragedy, 292
Lucchesini, Marquis, on the Confederation of the Rhine, 312
Lucubrations of Humphrey Ravelin, 25
Lynch's Treatise on Nervous Affections, 217

M

Macaulay on Negro Slavery, 127
Macleod's Ellen Gray, or dead Maiden's Curse, 435
Mantua, Duke of, a Tragedy, 434
Marina's Theory of the Cortes, 319
Markham's (Mrs.) History of England, 329
Matins and Vespers, 249
Mawe's Linnæan System of Conchology, 439
Maxwell's (Mrs.) Beauties of antient Eloquence, 447
Mecklenburgh, Letters from, 62
Memoirs of the Linnéan Society at Paris, Vol. I., 449
Mensuration, System of, 220
Midland Flora, Appendix to, 216
Miller's Lectures on Modern History, Vols. III. and IV., 327
Mongellaz's Essay on Intermittent Irritations, 498
Morea, Narrative of a Journey in, 405
Mother's Portrait, 217
Mothers, Hints to, 106

N

Napoleon, Life and Conversations of, *Article concluded*, 78
Nations, Political Economy of, 329
Negro Slavery, See *Wilberforce*, See *Macaulay*.
Nervous Affections, Treatise on, 217

New

New Biography of Contemporaries, Vols. VII—IX. 509
New England Tale, 105
Nicholson's Rudiments of Practical Perspective, 330
Nonconformist's (Welsh) Memorial, 436
Nursery Guide, 215

O

Oases, Journey to, 160
Observations on the Established Church in Ireland, 98
O'Driscol's Views of Ireland, 246
Oliver's Antiquities of Free-Masonry, 444
Orange-System exposed, 93
Outlines of Character, 107
Oxford Cathedral, History of, 272

P

Parallel between the English and the Russian Power, 482
Parry, Dr., Letter to, 32
Partington's Historical Account of the Steam-Engine, 44
Pecchio's (Count) Anecdotes of the Spanish Revolution, 68
Peninsular War, History of, 113
Penn, William, Life of, 106
Perspective, Rudiments of, 330
Pestilence, Researches into the Laws of, 282
Petrarch, Essays on, 383
Phillips's (Henry) History of Vegetables, 35
———'s (William) Lectures on Astronomy, 219
Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, Part I. for 1822, (*concluded*,) and Part II., 167
Physician's Guide, 323
Physicians of Ireland, Transactions of, Vol. III., 372
Plague, History of, 282
———, Remedy for, *ib.*
Pleasures of Friendship, a Tale, 106
Poems, See *Cornwall*, *Wolferstan*, *Coldwell*, *Drummond*, *Bowring*, *Byron*, *Swan*, *Wiffen*.
Political Economy of Nations, Essay on, 329
———————, Outlines of, 416
Portugal, Statistical Essay on, 463
Psalms, or Sacred Odes, 103
Purton's Appendix to the Midland Flora, 216

Q

Quentin Durward, [illegible]

R

Ravelin, Humphrey, Lucubrations of, 23
Reform, Parliamentary, Strictures on, 441
Reid's Travels in Ireland, 239
Relics of Literature, [illegible]
Republic of the Arts, a Poem, [illegible]
Rhine, Confederation of, History of, 312
Richards's Welsh Nonconformist's Memorial, 436
Rocky Mountains, Expedition to, 337
Royal Society of London, Philosophical Transactions of, Part I. for 1822, (*concluded*,) and Part II., 167
Russia, Parallel between the Power of, and of England, 482

S

Sabbath among the Mountains, 210
Scilly Islands, View of, 422
Sciography, 332
Sebastian, a Tragedy, 436
Senancourt, Mademoiselle de, — the Epitaph, a Novel, 544
Sequel to an unfinished MS. of Henry Kirk White, 223
Shipwreck, on an Institution for the Preservation of Lives against, 443
Simons-Candeille, Madame, — Agnes of France, a Romance, 544
Sixteenth Report of the Directors of the African Institution, 109
Society, Royal, of London, Philosophical Transactions of, Part I. for 1822, (*concluded*,) and Part II., 167
Southey's History of the Peninsular War, 113
———'s History of Brazil, Part III., 326
Spanish Revolution, Anecdotes of, 68
Steam-Engine, History of, 44
Strictures on Parliamentary Reform, 441
Swan's Heir of Foix, a dramatic Poem, 322
Syria, Travels in, 1

Table-Talk, 54
Thompson's Nursery Guide, 215
Tides, Remarks on, 333
Tom and Charles, or the Grinders, 108
Toulotte's Philosophical History of the Emperors, (*Article concluded*,) 533
Transactions, Philosophical, of the Royal Society of London, Part I. for 1822, (*concluded*,) and Part II., 167
——— of the Geological Society, Second Series, Vol. I., 225
——— of the Physicians in Ireland, Vol. III., 372
Travels, See *Burckhardt*, *Reid*, *Gell*, *Hodgskin*, *James*.
Tully's History of Plague, 282

U and V

Vale of Chamouni, a Poem, 15
Valperga, a Novel, 105
Vaudois, Voice of, a Poem, 213
Vega, Garcilasso de la, Works of, 400
Vegetables, cultivated, History of, 35
Vestiges of antient Manners in Italy and Sicily, 146
United States, Account of, 304
Voice of the Vaudois, a Poem, 213

W

Warner's Illustrations of the Novels by the Author of Waverley, 442
Waverley-Novels, Illustrations of, *ib.*
Welsh Nonconformist's Memorial, 436
White, Henry Kirke, Sequel to an unfinished MS. of, 223
Wiffen's Translation of the Works of Garcilasso de la Vega, 400
Wilberforce's Appeal in Behalf of Negro Slaves, 127
Winter-Evenings, Amusement for, 231
Wolferstan's (Mrs.) Enchanted Flute, with other Poems, 100
Woodley's View of the Scilly Islands, 422

ERRATA in Vol. CI.

Page 240. l. 9. for 'of the most miserable,' read *one of the most miserable.*
257. line last, for 'Townsend,' read *Townley.*
324. l. 4. from bottom, for 'unexcrementitious fluid,' read *an excrementitious fluid.*

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MAY, 1823.

Art. I. *Travels in Syria and the Holy Land.* By the late John Lewis Burckhardt.

[*Article concluded from the last Review, page* 353.]

Towards the end of April, 1812, this indefatigable traveller set out on another expedition from Damascus into the Haouran, and the mountains east and south-east of the lake of Tiberias. We regret that it is impossible for us to follow him to the several parts of the Ledja which he had not visited in his first tour; and we particularly recommend, not only to geographical but to general readers, his remarks on the inhabitants of the Haouran, which impart a fund of valuable information concerning that unfrequented district. — He computes the population of the Haouran, exclusively of the Arabs from the Desert who visit it in the spring and summer, at 50,000 or 60,000. The Turks and Christians resemble each other in their modes of life, but the manners of the Druses are very distinct. The two former have adopted, with the dress of the Bedouins, their dialect, gesture, and phraseology. Four-fifths of the Christians are Greeks, and they enjoy more toleration from their Turkish masters than they obtain in the greater part of Syria.

‘ Among the Fellahs of the Haouran, the richest lives like the poorest, and displays his superior wealth only on the arrival of strangers. The ancient buildings afford spacious and convenient dwellings to many of the modern inhabitants, and those who occupy them may have three or four rooms for each family; but in newly built villages, the whole family, with all its household furniture, cooking utensils, and provision-chests, is commonly huddled together in one apartment. Here also they keep their wheat and barley in reservoirs formed of clay, called Kawara, which are about five feet high and two feet in diameter. The chief articles of furniture are, a handmill, which is used in summer, when there is no water in the Wadys to drive the mills; some copper-kettles; and a few mats; in the richer houses some woollen Lebaet are met with, which are coarse woollen stuffs used for carpets, and in winter for horse-cloths: real carpets or mattrasses are seldom seen, unless it be *upon the arrival of* strangers of consequence. Their goat's hair sacks, and horse and camel equipments, are of the same kind as those used by the Bedouins, and are known by the same names. Each family has a large earthen jar, of the manufacture of Rasheiat el Fukhar, which is filled every morning by the females, from the Birket or spring, with water for the day's consumption. In every house there is a room for the reception of strangers, called from this circumstance Medhafe; it is usually that in which the male part of the family sleeps; in the midst of it is a fire-place to boil coffee.

'The most common dishes of these people are Burgoul and Keshk; in summer they supply the place of the latter by milk, Leben, and fresh butter. Of the Burgoul I have spoken on other occasions: there are two kinds of Keshk, Keshk-hammer and Keskh-leben; the first is prepared by putting leaven into the Burgoul, and pouring water over it; it is then left until almost putrid, and afterwards spread out in the sun, to dry; after which it is pounded, and when called for, served up mixed with oil, or butter. The Keskh-leben is prepared by putting Leben into the Burgoul, instead of leaven: in other respects the process is the same. Keskh and bread are the common breakfast, and towards sunset a plate of Burgoul, or some Arab dish, forms the dinner; in honour of strangers, it is usual to serve up at breakfast melted butter and bread, or fried eggs, and in the evening a fowl boiled in Burgoul, or a kid or lamb; but this does not very often happen. The women and children eat up whatever the men have left on their plates. The women dress in the Bedouin manner; they have a veil over the head, but seldom veil their faces.

'Hospitality to strangers is another characteristic common to the Arabs, and to the people of Haouran. A traveller may alight at any house he pleases; a mat will be immediately spread for him, coffee made, and a breakfast or dinner set before him. In entering a village it has often happened to me, that several persons presented themselves, each begging that I would lodge at his house; and this hospitality is not confined to the traveller himself, his horse or his camel is also fed, the first with half or three quarters of a Moud* of barley, the second with straw; with this part of their hospitality, however, I had often reason to be dissatisfied, less than a Moud being insufficient upon a journey for a horse, which is fed only in the evening, according to the custom of these countries. As it would be considered an affront to buy any corn, the horse must remain ill-fed, unless the traveller has the precaution to carry a little barley in his saddle-bag, to make up the deficiency in the host's allowance. On returning to Aaere to the house of the Sheikh, after my tour through the Desert, one of my Druse guides insisted upon taking my horse to his stables, instead of the Sheikh's; when I was about to depart, the Druse brought my horse to the door, and when I complained that he had fallen off greatly in the few days that I had remained in the village, the Sheikh said to me in the presence of several persons, "You are ignorant of the

---

'* The Moud is about nineteen pounds English.'

ways of this country; if you see that your host does not feed your horse, insist upon his giving him a Moud of barley daily; he dares not refuse it."' It is a point of honour with the host never to accept of the smallest return from a guest; I once only ventured to give a few piastres to the child of a very poor family at Zahouet, by whom we had been most hospitably treated, and rode off without attending to the cries of the mother, who insisted upon my taking back the money.'

Many other interesting particulars relative to these singular tribes will be found in the pages before us: but we must not pass by the extraordinary feature of domestic manners, which is developed in the following paragraph:

'Daughters are paid for according to the respectability of their father, sometimes as high as fifteen hundred piastres, and this custom prevails amongst Druses, Turks, and Christians. If her family is rich the girl is fitted out with clothes, and a string of zequins or of silver coin, to tie round her head; after which she is delivered to her husband. I had an opportunity of witnessing an espousal of two Christians at Aaere, in the house of a Christian: the bride was brought with her female friends and relations, from her native village, one day's journey distant, with two camels decorated with tassels, bells, &c., and was lodged with her relations in Aaere. They entered the village preceded by women beating the tambourine, and by the village youths, firing off their musquets. Soon afterwards the bridegroom retired to the spring, which was in a field ten minutes from the village, where he washed, and dressed himself in new clothes. He then entered the village mounted on a caparisoned horse, surrounded by young men, two of whom beat tamborines, and the others fired musquets. He alighted before the Sheikh's house, and was carried for about a quarter of an hour by two men, on their arms, amidst continued singing and huzzaing: the Sheikh then exclaimed, "Mebarek el Aris!" Blessed be the bridegroom! which was repeated by all present, after which he was set down, and remained till sunset, exposed to the jests of his friends; after this he was carried to the church, where the Greek priest performed the marriage-ceremony, and the young couple retired to their dwelling. The bridegroom's father had slaughtered several lambs and kids, a part of which was devoured by mid-day; but the best pieces were brought in three enormous dishes of Burgoul to the Sheikh's Medhafe; two being for the mob, and the third for the Sheikh, and principal men of the village. In the evening paras were collected by one of the bridegroom's friends, who sung verses in praise of all his acquaintance, every one of whom, when named, was expected to make a present.'

In the summer of 1812, we find Mr. Burckhardt engaged in the arduous enterprise of visiting the almost unknown districts to the east of the Dead Sea, and exploring the country between *that ocean and the* Red Sea. For this purpose, he resolved to pursue the route from Damascus to Cairo, in preference to the direct road through Jerusalem and Ghaza; which, being a more beaten track, is less fertile of new and interesting information. Accordingly, on the 12th of June in that year, he left Damascus, having assumed the most common Bedouin dress, and mounted a mare whose appearance was not likely to excite the cupidity of the Arabs.

On the north side of Kanneytra are the remains of a small antient city, which Mr. B. conjectures to be Canatha.

'Tabaria, formerly Tiberias, stands close to the lake, upon a small plain, surrounded by mountains. Its situation is extremely hot and unhealthy, as the mountain impedes the free course of the westerly winds which prevail throughout Syria during the summer. Hence intermittent fevers, especially those of the quartan form, are very common in the town in that season. Little rain falls in winter, snow is almost unknown on the borders of the lake, and the temperature, on the whole, appears to be very nearly the same as that of the Dead Sea. The town is surrounded towards the land by a thick and well-built wall, about twenty feet in height, with a high parapet and loop-holes. It surrounds the city on three sides, and touches the water at its two extremities; but there are some remains on the shore of the lake, which seem to indicate that the town was once inclosed on this side also. I observed, likewise, some broken columns of granite in the water close to the shore. The town wall is flanked by twenty round towers standing at unequal distances. Both towers and walls are built with black stones of moderate size, and seem to be the work of not very remote times; the whole being in a good state of repair, the place may be considered as almost impregnable to Syrian soldiers.' —

'Tabaria, with its district of ten or twelve villages, forms a part of the Pashalik of Akka. Being considered one of the principal points of defence of the Pashalik, a garrison of two or three hundred men is constantly kept here, the greater part of whom are married, and settled. During the reign of Djezzar a colony of two hundred Afghan soldiers were persuaded by the Pasha to establish themselves at Tabaria; many of them were natives of Kashmir; and among others their Aga, who was sent for expressly by Djezzar. After the Pasha's death they dispersed over Syria, but I found two Kashmirines still remaining, who gave me the history of their colony in broken Arabic.

'The Christian church is dedicated to St. Peter, and is said to have been founded on the spot where St. Peter threw his net. It belongs to the community of Terra Santa, and is visited annually on St. Peter's day by the Frank missionaries of Nazaret, who celebrate mass in it on this occasion. In the street, not far from the church, is a large stone, formerly the architrave of some building; upon which are sculptured in bas-relief two lions seizing two sheep.

'There are about four thousand inhabitants in Tabaria, one-fourth of whom are Jews. The Christian community consists only of a few families, but they enjoy great liberty, and are on a footing of equality with the Turks. The difference of treatment which the Christians experience from the Turks in different parts of Syria is very remarkable. In some places a Christian would be deprived of his last farthing if not of his life, were he to curse the Mohammedan religion when quarrelling with a Turk; while in others but a few hours distant, he retorts with impunity upon the Mohammedan every invective which he may utter against the Christian religion. At Szaffad, where is a small Christian community, the Turks are extremely intolerant; at Tiberias, on the contrary, I have seen Christians beating Turks in the public Bazar. This difference seems chiefly to depend upon the character of the local government. That of Soleiman Pasha of Akka, the successor of Djezzar, is distinguished for its religious tolerance; while Damascus still continues to be the seat of fanaticism, and will remain so as long as there are no Frank establishments or European agents in that city.'

The trade of Tabaria is chiefly with the Bedouins. The produce of the fields consists of wheat, barley, dhourra, tobacco, melons, grapes, and a few vegetables. The Jews occupy a quarter on the banks of the lake in the middle of the town, which is separated from the rest of the city by a high wall, the gates of which are daily shut at sunset. Tiberias is one of the four holy cities of the Talmud*, and is esteemed as holy ground, because Jacob is said to have resided there.

'The pilgrim Jews, who repair to Tiberias, are of all ages from twelve to sixty. If they bring a little money with them the cunning of their brethren here soon deprives them of it; for as they arrive with the most extravagant ideas of the holy cities, they are easily imposed upon before their enthusiasm begins to cool. To rent a house in which some learned Rabbin or saint died, to visit the tombs of the most renowned devotees, to have the sacred books opened in their presence, and public prayers read for the salvation of the new-comers, all these inestimable advantages, together with various other minor religious tricks, soon strip the stranger of his last farthing; he then becomes dependant upon the charity of his nation, upon foreign subsidies, or upon the fervour of some inexperienced pilgrim. Those who go abroad as missionaries generally realise some property, as they are allowed ten per cent. upon all alms collected, besides their travelling expenses. The Jewish devotees pass the whole day in the schools or the synagogue, reciting the Old Testament and the Talmud, both of which many of them know entirely by heart. They all write Hebrew; but I did not see any fine hand-writing amongst them; their learning seems to be on the same level as that of the Turks, among whom an Olema thinks he has attained the pinnacle of knowledge if he can recite all the Koran, together with some thousand of Hadeath, or sentences of the Prophet, and traditions concerning him; but neither Jews, nor Turks, nor Christians, in these countries, have the slightest idea of that criticism, which might guide them to a rational explanation or emendation of their sacred books. It was in vain that I put questions to several of the first Rabbins, concerning the desert in which the children of Israel sojourned for forty years; I found that my own scanty knowledge of the geography of Palestine, and of its partition amongst the twelve tribes, was superior to theirs.

---

* The other three are Szaffad, Hebron, and Jerusalem.

'There are some beautiful copies of the books of Moses in the Syrian synagogue, written upon a long roll of leather, not parchment, but no one could tell me when or where they were made; I suspect, however, that they came from Bagdad, where the best Hebrew scribes live, and of whose writings I had seen many fine specimens at Aleppo and Damascus. The libraries of the two schools at Tiberias are moderately stocked with Hebrew books, most of which have been printed at Vienna and Venice. Except some copies of the Old Testament and the Talmud, they have no manuscripts.

'They observe a singular custom here in praying; while the Rabbin recites the Psalms of David, or the prayers extracted from them, the congregation frequently imitate by their voice or gestures the meaning of some remarkable passages; for example, when the Rabbin pronounces the words, "Praise the Lord with the sound of the trumpet," they imitate the sound of the trumpet through their closed fists. When "a horrible tempest" occurs, they puff and blow to represent a storm; or should he mention "the cries of the righteous in distress," they all set up a loud screaming; and it not unfrequently happens that while some are still blowing the storm, others have already begun the cries of the righteous, thus forming a concert which it is difficult for any but a zealous Hebrew to hear with gravity.'

Of the remains of antiquity at Tiberias, only a few columns and some half-ruined walls are discernible; and the stones of which they are constructed do not denote a remote age. On the 26th of June, the traveller took a guide to Mount Tabor, the country up to the gates of Damascus being in the most dreadful state of insecurity. This mountain is almost insulated: but on the south and west sides is a large plain, called Merdj Ibn Aamer, the plain of Esdraelon of the Scriptures. The mountains of Nazareth reach the foot of Mount Tabor, of which the shape is a truncated cone, with oak and pistachio trees covering it to the top. Its soil is calcareous. The Christians consider this mount as holy, in honor of the Transfiguration: but the Greeks and Latins are at variance concerning the exact spot. During the greater part of the summer, the mount is in the morning enveloped in clouds, which disperse about noon.

At the distance of four hours and a quarter from Tiberias is Kefer Kenna; a neat village, with a copious spring, surrounded by olive and other fruit trees, and chiefly inhabited by Catholic Christians. 'This,' says Mr. B., 'is the Cana celebrated in Scripture for the miracle at the marriage-feast.' Naszera or Nazareth is eight hours from Tiberias. Here the traveller was introduced to one of the most singular of our fair country-women, Lady Hester Stanhope, who had but just arrived from Jerusalem and Akka, and was preparing to visit the northern parts of Syria.

> 'The *manly* spirit and enlightened curiosity,' he observes, 'of this lady ought to make many modern travellers ashamed of the indolent indifference with which they hurry over foreign countries. She sees a great deal, and carefully examines what she sees; but it is to be hoped that the polite and distinguished manner in which she is every where received by the governors of the country will not impress her with too favourable an opinion of the Turks in general, and of their disposition towards the nations of Europe.'

Nothing seems to have been gleaned by the author concerning Nazareth which is not to be found in the notices of other travellers. Being desirous of visiting Szalt, he joined a little caravan, and left the former place on the 1st of July, on his long-projected expedition through the valley of the Jordan.

This valley, which begins at the northern extremity of the Lake of Tiberias, is about two hours in breadth. Much of it is watered by the rivulets which descend from the mountains, but the greater part is a parched and uninhabited desert. The Jordan, on issuing from the Lake of Tiberias, flows for three hours near the western hills, and then turns towards the eastern. The valley affords pasturage to numerous tribes of Bedouins. — Szalt is situated on the declivity of a hill which is crowned by a castle, and surrounded on all sides by sheep-mountains. The pashas of Damascus have several times attempted, but ineffectually, to subdue the inhabitants; who consist of about 400 Mussulman and 80 Christian families, living in great harmony with each other. The people are chiefly agricultural. Besides the cultivation of wheat, barley, and grapes, they collect in July and August, in the mountains of the Belka, the leaves of the sumach, which they dry for the Jerusalem market, to be used in the tanneries, to the amount of 500 camel-loads per annum, and at the rate of 15 piastres per cwt.

Impatient to visit Amman, or Philadelpheia, Mr. B. with great difficulty procured a guide to conduct him on that dangerous route, who had five years before served Mousa (the name assumed by M. Seetzen) in that capacity. For an accurate idea, however, of the situation and ruins of Amman, one of the most antient cities recorded in Jewish history, we must refer to the engraved plan which is inserted to illustrate its topography. The architectural remains of this celebrated place were of different ages, the greater part of those now extant being evidently Roman, though not of the best time: but the buildings being in decay, from the peculiarity of the atmosphere, Mr. Burckhardt could find no inscriptions to illustrate the history of the place. We subjoin his summary of the productions of the Ghor, or the plain which is called the Valley of the Jordan:

'In the vegetable productions of this plain the botanist would perhaps discover several unknown species of trees and plants; the reports of the Arabs on this subject are so vague and incoherent, that it is almost impossible to obtain any precise information from them; they speak, for instance, of the spurious pomegranate-tree, producing a fruit exactly like that of the pomegranate, but which, on being opened, is found to contain nothing but a dusty powder; this, they pretend, is the Sodom apple-tree; other persons however deny its existence. The tree Asheyr is very common in the Ghor. It bears a fruit of a reddish yellow colour, about three inches in diameter, which contains a white substance, resembling the finest silk, and enveloping some seeds. The Arabs collect the silk, and twist it into matches for their fire-locks, preferring it to the common match, because it ignites more readily. More than twenty camel-loads might be annually procured, and it might perhaps be found useful in the silk and cotton manufactories of Europe. At present the greater part of the fruit rots on the trees. On making an incision into the thick branches of the Asheyr a white juice exudes, which is collected by putting a hollow reed into the incision; the Arabs sell the juice to the druggists at Jerusalem, who are said to use it in medicine as a strong cathartic. *

'Indigo is a very common production of the Ghor; the Ghowárene sell it to the merchants of Jerusalem and Hebron, where it is worth twenty per cent. more than Egyptian indigo. One of the most interesting productions of this valley is the Beyrouk honey, or as the Arabs call it, Assal Beyrouk. I suppose it to be the manna, but I never had an opportunity of seeing it myself. It was described to me, as a juice dropping from the leaves and twigs of

---

'* It is the same plant called Oshour by the people of Upper Egypt and Nubia. Norden, who has given a drawing of it, as found by him near the first cataract of the Nile, improperly denominates it Oshar.'

of a tree called Gharrab, of the size of an olive-tree, with leaves like those of the poplar, but somewhat broader. The honey collects upon the leaves like dew, and is gathered from them, or from the ground under the tree, which is often found completely covered with it. According to some its colour is brownish; others said it was of a grayish hue; it is very sweet when fresh, but turns sour after being kept two days. The Arabs eat it like honey, with butter, they also put it into their gruel, and use it in rubbing their water-skins, in order to exclude the air. I enquired whether it was a laxative, but was answered in the negative. The Beyrouk honey is collected only in the months of May and June. Some persons assured me that the same substance was likewise produced by the thorny tree Tereshresh, and collected at the same time as that from the Gharrab.

'In the mountains of Shera grows a tree called Arar, from the fruit of which the Bedouins extract a juice, which is extremely nutritive. The tree Talh, which produces the gum-arabic, is very common in the Ghor; but the Arabs do not take the trouble to collect the gum. Among other vegetable productions there is a species of tobacco, called Merdiny, which has a most disagreeable taste; but, for want of a better kind, it is cultivated in great quantity, and all the Bedouins on the borders of the Dead Sea are supplied with it. The coloquintida grows wild every where in great quantities. The tree Szadder, which is a species of the cochineal tree, is also very common.

'As to the mineral productions of the borders of the Dead Sea, it appears that the southern mountains are full of rock-salt, which is washed off by the winter rains, and carried down into the lake. In the northern Ghor, pieces of native sulphur are found at a small depth beneath the surface, and are used by the Arabs to cure diseases in their camels. The asphaltum, Hommar, which is collected by the Arabs of the western shore, is said to come from a mountain which blocks up the passage along the eastern Ghor, and which is situated at about two hours south of Wady Modjeb. The Arabs pretend that it oozes from the fissures in the cliff, and collects in large pieces on the rock below, where the mass gradually increases and hardens, until it is rent asunder by the heat of the sun, with a loud explosion, and falling into the sea, is carried by the waves in considerable quantities to the opposite shores. At the northern extremity of the sea the stink-stone is found; its combustible properties are ascribed, by the Arabs, to the magic rod of Moses, whose tomb is not far from thence. The stones are thrown into the fires made of camel's dung, to encrease the heat.'

Mr. B. was particularly desirous of visiting Wady Mousa and its antiquities, and entertained hopes of crossing the Desert from that place in a straight line to Cairo: but he expresses his regret that he was not able to give a more complete account of this memorable spot. Alone and unprotected in a part of the Desert which no traveller had yet explored, he was restrained from too close an investigation, lest it should have drawn on him the suspicion that is so common among those barbarous tribes, of searching for hidden treasures; in which case he would probably have been plundered, and stripped not only of the little money which he possessed, but of what was more valuable to him, his journal-book. With all these disadvantages, however, he has collected several important notices of those beautiful remains; the greater part of which, at least those that are still in preservation, are sepulchral excavations. From a comparison of the testimonies of various authors, he conjectures the ruins of Wady Mousa to be those of the antient *Petra*, the capital of Arabia Petræa; and it is at least certain that there are no other ruins between the extremities of the Dead Sea and the Red Sea, which in any way correspond to that city. The existence of the valley El Araba, the *Kadesh Barnea* of the Scriptures, seems to have been unknown both to antient and modern geographers, though it is a prominent part of the topography of Syria and Arabia Petræa. Mr. B. remarks that it is deserving of farther investigation, and suggests the practicability of proceeding along it in winter-time, accompanied by one or two Bedouin guides, who might be procured at Hebron. Akaba, or *Eziongeber*, might be reached in eight days, by the very road which formerly kept up the communication between Jerusalem and her dependencies on the Red Sea; and which, in all probability, conveyed the treasures of Ophir to the warehouses of Solomon.

In the spring of 1816, Cairo being visited by the plague, our traveller determined to pass his time during the prevalence of the disease among the Bedouins of Mount Sinai; and accordingly he departed on the 21st of April from Cairo, in company with a caravan bound for Suez, taking the route which lies mid-way between the great Hadj route and the more southern one close by the mountains. To the distance of about five hours from Cairo, he met with large quantities of petrified wood. Travellers have doubted this fact: but he was satisfied of its being really petrified wood, after an inspection of the substance, in which the texture and fibres of the wood were clearly discernible.

> 'I think it not improbable,' he adds, 'that before Nechos dug the canal between the Nile and the Red Sea, the communication between Arsinoe or Clysma and Memphis may have been carried on this way; and stations may have been established on the spots now covered by these petrified trees; the water requisite to produce and maintain vegetation might have been procured from deep wells, or from reservoirs of rain water, as is done in the equally barren

desert between Djidda and Mekka. After the completion of the canal, this route was perhaps neglected; the trees, left without a regular supply of water, dried up and fell; and the sands, with the winter rains and torrents, gradually effected the petrifaction. I have seen specimens of the petrified wood of date-trees found in the Libyan desert, beyond the Bahr bala ma, where they were observed by Horneman in 1798, and in 1812 by M. Boutin, a French officer, who brought several of them to Cairo. They resemble precisely those which I saw on the Suez road, in colour, substance, and texture. Some of them are of silex, in others, the substance seems to approach to hornblende.'

Suez is in a ruinous state. When Niebuhr saw it, the town was not inclosed. Its *population* consists only of about a dozen agents, who receive goods from the ports of the Red Sea, and forward them to Cairo. A caravan of 500 or 600 camels, on the tenth of each lunar month, leaves Suez for Cairo, accompanied by guards and two field-pieces: but accidents seldom befell the merchants, so formidable was the name of the Pasha, Mahommed Ali. Before his authority was established, and under the Mamelouk government, the Bedouins were masters of Suez, for they extorted tributes from every inhabitant to ensure him the safe passage of his goods or person through the Desert: but their power is now at an end, and the Pasha himself exacts four dollars for every camel-load that passes the gates. At this time, the freight per camel-load was about four dollars and a half. The aspect of Suez is that of an Arabian town, and the same motley crowds are to be seen in the streets. The air is bad, occasioned by the saline nature of the earth, and the low grounds, which the tides fill with stagnated water; so that, during the spring and the summer, malignant fevers prevail. The water comes from the well of Naba, but it so soon becomes putrid that ships in general touch at Tor for a supply. In 1762, when Niebuhr travelled, Suez derived most of its provisions from Mount Sinai and Ghaza: but now the town is supplied from Cairo.

From Ayoun Mousa to the well of Howara, the party travelled 15 hours and a quarter. Mr. B. therefore conjectures that this is the desert of three days, mentioned in the Scriptures to have been crossed by the Israelites immediately after their passage of the Red Sea; for the movement of a whole nation, he observes, might well occupy three days; and the bitter well at Marah, which was sweetened by Moses, corresponds exactly with that of Howara. Admitting Bir Howara to be the Marah of Exodus, (xv. 23.) then Wady Gharendel, about three hours farther north-east, is probably *Elim*, with its wells and date-trees; — an opinion entertained by Niebuhr.

Of the dangers encountered by our traveller in his pilgrimage over this inhospitable desert, we cannot omit the picture drawn by his own hand.

'*May 9th.*—Ayd still expressed his certainty that somebody had approached us last night, so much confidence did he place in the barking of his dog; he therefore advised me to hasten my way back, as some Arabs might see our footsteps in the sand, and pursue us in quest of a booty. On departing, Ayd, who was barefooted, and whose feet had become sore with walking, took from under the date-bush round which we had passed the night, a pair of leathern sandals, which he knew belonged to his Heywat friend, the fisherman, and which the latter had hidden here till his return. In order to inform the owner that it was he who had taken the sandals, he impressed his footstep in the sand just by, which he knew the other would immediately recognise, and he turned the toes towards the south, to indicate that he had proceeded with the sandals in that direction.

'We now returned across the plain to the before-mentioned basalt cliffs, passed the different small bays, and turned up into Wady Mezeiryk. We had descended from our camels, which Szaleh was driving before him, about fifty paces in advance; I followed, and about the same distance behind me walked Hamd and Ayd. As we had seen nobody during the whole journey, and were now returning into the friendly districts of the Towara, we had ceased to entertain any fears from enemies, and were laughing at Ayd for recommending us to cross the valleys as quickly as possible. My gun was upon my camel, and I had just turned leisurely round an angle of the valley, when I heard Ayd cry out with all his might, "Get your arms! Here they are!" I immediately ran up to the camels, to take my gun, but the cowardly Szaleh, instead of stopping to assist his companions, made the camels gallop off at full speed up the valley. I, however, overtook them, and seized my gun, but before I could return to Hamd, I heard two shots fired, and Ayd's war-hoop, "Have at him! are we not Towara?" Immediately afterwards I saw Hamd spring round the angle, his eyes flashing with rage, his shirt sprinkled with blood, his gun in one hand, and in the other his knife covered with blood; his foot was bleeding, he had lost his turban, and his long black hair hung down over his shoulders. "I have done for him!" he exclaimed, as he wiped his knife; "but let us fly." "Not without Ayd," said I. "No, indeed," he replied; "without him we should all be lost." We returned round the corner, and saw Ayd exerting his utmost agility to come up with us. At forty paces distance an Arab lay on the ground, and three others were standing over him. We took hold of Ayd's arm and hastened to our camels, though we knew not where to find them. Szaleh had frightened them so greatly by striking them with his gun, that they went off at full gallop, and it was half an hour before we reached them; one of them had burst its girths, and thrown off its saddle and load. We replaced the load, mounted Ayd, and hastened to pass the rocks of Djebel Sherafe. We then found ourselves in a more open country, less liable to be waylaid amongst rocks, and better able to defend ourselves. Hamd now told me that Ayd had first seen four Bedouins running down upon us; they had evidently intended to waylay us from behind the corner, but came a little too late. When he heard Ayd cry out, he had just time to strike fire and to light the match of his gun, when the boldest of the assailants approached within twenty paces of him and fired; the ball passed through his shirt; he returned the fire but missed his aim; while his opponent was coolly reloading his piece, before his companions had joined him, Ayd cried out to Hamd, to attack the robber with his knife, and advanced to his support with a short spear which he carried; Hamd drew his knife, rushed upon the adversary, and after receiving a wound in the foot, brought him to the ground, but left him immediately, on seeing his companions hastening to his relief. Ayd now said that if the man was killed, we should certainly be pursued, but that if he was only wounded the others would remain with him, and give up the pursuit. We travelled with all possible haste, not knowing whether more enemies might not be behind, or whether the encampment of the wounded man might not be in the vicinity, from whence his friends might collect to revenge his blood.

'Ayd had certainly not been mistaken last night; these robbers had no doubt seen our fire, and had approached us, but were frightened by the barking of the dog. Uncertain whether we were proceeding northward or southward, they had waited till they saw us set out, and then by a circuitous route in the mountains had endeavoured, unseen, to get the start of us in order to waylay us in the passes of the Wady Mezeiryk. If they had reached the spot where we were attacked two or three minutes sooner, and had been able to take aim at us from behind the rock, we must all have inevitably perished. That they intended to murder us, contrary to the usual practice of Bedouins, is easily accounted for: they knew from the situation of the place, where they discovered us, as well as from the dress and appearance of my guides, that they were Towara Bedouins; but though I was poorly dressed, they must have recognized me to be a townsman, and a townsman is always supposed by Bedouins to carry money with him. To rob us without resistance was impossible, their number being too small; or supposing this had succeeded, and any of the guides had escaped, they knew that they would sooner or later be obliged to restore the property taken, and to pay the fine of blood and wounds, because the Towara were then at peace with all their neighbours. For these reasons they had no doubt resolved to kill the whole party, as the only effectual mode of avoiding all disclosures as to the real perpetrators of the murder. I do not believe that such atrocities often occur in the eastern desert, among the great Aeneze tribe; at least I never heard of any; but these Heywat Arabs are notorious for their bad faith, and never hesitate to kill those who do not travel under the protection of their own people, or their well-known friends. Scarcely any other Bedouin robbers would have fired till they had summoned us to give up our baggage, and had received a shot for answer.'

We must recommend to our readers the interesting particulars relative to the convent of Mount Sinai; which we omit with the less reluctance, because an accurate account of this monastic community may be found in the second volume of Mr. Walpole's collection. We wish that we could extract a portion of the valuable information relative to the Turkmans, which is contained in the Appendix. It has been our endeavor to select only those parts of Mr. Burckhardt's volume, which have communicated new facts concerning countries already known; or have contributed additional lights to scientific geography, by opening routes untrodden by preceding travellers.

We have no means of adequately discharging ourselves of the weight of gratitude, which we owe to the memory of this laborious and enlightened man: but we must remark that, in addition to his printed works, he has left for future travellers the still more useful monument of his life, which was dedicated to science; and the example of his incomparable temper, which no disappointment could embitter nor any adversity depress. It was his guiding maxim, to ingratiate himself with the various tribes among whom so large a portion of his time was spent, to bend to their peculiarities, and to win their confidence by good humor and hilarity. No other person, born in Europe, had ever so completely *orientalized* the whole system of his nature. He spoke the very language of the Desert, with perhaps some difference as to pronunciation; and he had made himself acquainted with the history and condition of all the tribes of Bedouins, who are distinguished from each other by innumerable tints and shadows of variation.

As a geographer, Burckhardt was rather indefatigable than, in the strict sense of the word, scientific. His bearings, which were taken by the compass, are not always accurate: but his errors in this respect may be chiefly attributed to the variable nature of the instrument, or to the haste and concealment under which he was obliged to make his observations. They are also, as the editor has justly remarked, multiplied to an excessive degree, instead of being verified in a smaller number, and the intermediate angles measured by a sextant; and hence they have been found of less utility in the construction of maps than his distances in time. His observations in the Haouran, however, form an exception to this remark; for he seems to have examined this unknown district with uncommon minuteness, and made two large delineations of it, which have been the materials of the accurate map that is inserted in the volume.

Art. II. *The Vale of Chamouni;* a Poem. By the Author of "Rome." 8vo. 6*s*. 6*d*. Boards. Warren. 1822.

We would neither deny nor conceal the satisfaction which, as critics, we feel when we remark the improvement, or even the gratitude, of an author whom we have endeavored to welcome handsomely, and as he really deserved. These are, indeed, the *consolations* to which we look, in the prosecution of our long and weary path. — The present poet retains all the good feeling, the variety, and the earnestness of observation, which he displayed in his former work.* He is evidently a gentleman, and gives strong indications of scholarship, properly so called, as well as of having read largely, and reflected sufficiently on the subjects of his studies: but it would be unjust and extravagant panegyric to speak of compression, of conciseness, or of distinct picturesque views, in the work before us. Still less does it display any of the ardor and strength of transcendent genius. Yet it gives a pleasing and liberal view of the countries which the poet visits, of the national character of the inhabitants, and of the scenes and associations which render each neighbourhood most attractive.

The Vale of Chamouni, and its environs, do indeed comprize a large portion of the classic ground of that division of the Continent. Where else, in so small a space, shall we find so many objects of interesting recollection? Here we have the adjoining records of Swiss independence; the contrasted excellence of French genius in the sentiment of Rousseau and the wit of Voltaire; and the triumph of English historical research (blighted, alas! by one melancholy defect!) in the lettered eloquence of Gibbon. — On all these subjects, and many more of the poetical imaginations excited by this land of beauty and of fame, as well as of silence and solitude, our tuneful traveller speaks with natural energy, although with no peculiar force. To appreciate, indeed, his exact degree and light and shade of merit, our readers must go through his little work; and we recommend them to do so, as a pleasant and innocent recreation. All is gentle and virtuous, often enlivened and invigorated by a very happy classical recollection, or a burst "of the love of sacred liberty," perfectly well adapted to the character of the better-informed English tourist.

We shall furnish our readers with specimens of each of these *kinds* of merit: — of the *degree*, they must be the final judges themselves:

"*Hæc loca non tauri spirantes naribus ignem,*" &c. &c.

---

* *See our Number for* January, 1822, p. 99.

‘ Thrice blest Britannia! whose luxuriant soil,
Ne'er mocks with faithless hopes the peasant's toil,
Ne'er, like the scornful beauty, cheers the heart
With smiles, to pierce it with a keener dart;
No furious hurricanes nor earthquakes tear
Thy gentle bosom; but the glist'ning share
Wounds the green surface of thy fertile fields,
Whose bounteous breast a golden harvest yields;
No avalanche, or lava's fiery stream,
Disturbs the sweetness of the shepherd's dream;
He tastes the lucid coolness of the rills,
That bathe wild flowers on Malvern's lovely hills;
No serpents hiss in Esham's flowery vale,
As o'er the meads he breathes the morning gale;
Delicious fruit the bending pear-tree yields
Along sweet Worcestershire's enchanted fields;
Worcester! the British Eden! oft to thee
My weary soul returns, as roves the bee
From thistles to the rose; the blissful hours
I pass'd amidst thy groves and mantling bowers
Rise to remembrance like melodious strains
Of distant flutes or horns; thy golden plains
Rich in the stores of Ceres, gardens sweet,
Where falls the gentle tread of beauty's feet
Like snow upon the flower; the social board,
With rich and hospitable treasures stor'd,
Warm on my breast in pleasing fancy gleam,
As on the Polar waste the sunny beam.
Screen'd from the tyrant grasp of lawless power,
The Briton's cottage is the freeman's tower;
Domestic love endears the social scene,
And o'er his hearth Religion smiles serene;
His wooden walls repel the trembling foe,
And, when the wintry winds tremendous blow,
He, reckless of the wasteful ocean's roar,
Sleeps to the thunder of the sounding shore.’

We are still old-fashioned patriots enough to welcome this sort of strain with cordiality; although we abominate vulgar clap-traps, and “*truly British feelings*,” (those that have been profanely so called by the slaves of power,) as heartily as any friends of freedom yet surviving among us.

Ardently, indeed, does the present author fan the flame of liberty, and thus naturally speaks of the patriotic spirit of Helvetia:

‘ Theirs, too, sweet Liberty's immortal flame;
When from the West the ruthless spoiler came,
Like wolves upon the fold, each heart possest
The fire that urg'd a Tell on Gresler's breast,

Then a rous'd peasantry to battle sprang
At Freedom's sacred summons; valleys rang
With drum, and trump, and cannon's sounding peal;
Old age reviv'd and childhood grasp'd the steel;
The mountain-chivalry in sturdy pride
Rose like the foaming sea-god from the tide.
The hands unus'd to wield the polish'd blade
Indignant seiz'd the ploughshare and the spade,
The rooted rocks with strength of Ajax tore,
And shower'd them with the fated cannon's roar.
Nor could the crouching eagle long withstand
The thunder from a free-born peasant's hand;
The blood of Hofer flow'd through every vein;
The trembling robber grasp'd a lion's mane;
And even that martial hymn, whose awful tone
Could shake the sacred temple and the throne,
That music thrilling from Bellona's car,
Bright prelude to the dawn of honour's star,
Now lost its magic influence; no more
That talisman could still the battle's roar;
A dying lay the trump of glory gave,
A requiem o'er the bleeding soldier's grave.
And that dear sex, whose steps are wont to move
In the sweet circle of domestic love,
Whose tongue, more eloquent than Tully's art,
Steals like enchanting music on the heart,
Now, rous'd to frenzy, fac'd the battle's fire,
Their holy cause — home, children, country, sire!
They fought and conquer'd on the gory field,
And Beauty's tender arm was Age's shield.
In vain the scept'red tyrant's thunders roll;
The flash falls hurtless on the freeman's soul;
The tower, where liberty her standard rears,
Vigour from battle gains, and strength from years;
Though by the weight of madd'ning crowds opprest,
Still firmer on the rock those pillars rest,
Like the majestic arch that spans the wave,
Whose rooted piers the foaming waters lave;
No mortal force can crush that fabrick down,
It knits with double strength its joints of stone,
Serene, though wild the rushing torrent roars,
With marble grasp it binds the parted shores.'

' We might point out many minor defects in this pleasing little volume, which may be called a good "*Poet's Vade-mecum to the Alps*:" — but we shall be satisfied with specifying one blemish, which is, perhaps, the most prominent. We mean that tendency to prosaic lines and passages, which appears to be the besetting vice of our contemporary bards. That this is likely to be the case, with the theory of poetry now prevalent, we have often endeavored to shew; and we shall not return to the exhausted and unavailing theme.

The story of the dog, which was killed by the unconscious soldier whom he attempted to preserve, is very touching, and we wish that the author had dwelt longer on it:

‘ One dismal night, when loud the thunder roll'd,
A poor benighted soldier, numbed with cold,
Fell down the slippery gulf; his mournful cries,
Mix'd with the echoing tumult of the skies,
The sleeping sentries roused; the pastor came,
Lit by the transient lightning's forked flame.
The noblest dog of all that glorious breed,
Who oft the cold, despairing wanderer freed
From pending death, by faithful instinct led,
Rush'd to the bleeding stranger's snowy bed.
O! fatal speed, the tear of pity falls,
While painful memory that night recalls:
Not man alone should bathe sweet Mercy's eye;
The bleeding brute demands compassion's sigh.
The soldier mark'd the hound his track pursue,
Nor that bold creature's generous purpose knew;
He deem'd the brute, that thus his footsteps traced,
Some famish'd wolf, or blood-hound of the waste,
Levell'd his fiery tube with deadly art,
And pierced his generous preserver's heart!
A thankless world's reward for noble deeds;
The villain sleeps on down, while virtue bleeds!
‘ In that bold race the various gifts we find
Of steed and lordly elephant combined,
Thou dear companion of my youthful hours,
When careless fancy strew'd the world with flowers,
How oft delighted have I seen thee spring
With speed that mock'd the glancing swallows wing,
To catch the rolling ball; in riper years
Thy social aid each manly sport endears;
When flies the bounding hart, thy music swells,
And calls the sleeping echoes from their cells;
Or on the field of golden treasures bare,
Thy feeling nostril snuffs the tainted air;
With foot upraised the breathing statue stands
Like some fair form inspired by Grecian hands.
When o'er the wreck the stormy billows rave,
Thy aid can snatch the swimmer from the wave.
To thee the sightless beggar trusts to gain
A shelter from the storm, and chilling rain.
Thy cares in wintry night our doors defend,
Man's surest guide, companion, guardian, friend.
No cold revenge those faithful creatures know;
Fawning they lick the hand that strikes the blow;

Nor grateful memory in absence fails;
The dog his lord's return with transport hails;
By all forgotten, worn by toil and years,
The voice of gratitude his bosom cheers;
But lo! that faithful servant lifts his eyes
Glistening with grateful love, and fawning—dies!'

On the whole, we are much pleased with this modest and agreeable description of that celebrated vale, which (take it for all in all) has perhaps the most varied attractions for the learned, the sentimental, or the *promiscuous* traveller, of any portion of the Continent; and which rests on the works of nature and intellect, not on those of art, for its principal recommendations.

Art. III. *Grimaldi; a* Tragedy: in Five Acts. By William Bailey. 8vo. pp. 117. Simpkin and Marshall, 1822.

The introductory paragraph in the preface of this author gives a most amusing clue to the character of the work:

'The wisest men of every age and nation have insisted upon it, that truth is the strongest and most commanding of all things. Now nothing is more true than that this play was written in the summer of 1813, at Colerain and Garvagh, in the north of Ireland, during the intervals of military duty. It was then despatched to England to a literary friend, who sent it to a professed critic, who read it as professed critics commonly do the writings of others, wrong end upwards, and then returned it.

'My friend now placed it in the hands of a gentleman of considerable attainments in ancient literature, who read it not at all, but very quietly lost it, and suffered it to remain unfound for nearly a year, if not quite a year. When recovered to my possession, it underwent some revision, was laid aside for almost another year, and then was forwarded to London with an eye to representation or publication, as might be; but being anticipated in this by the appearance of the Reverend Mr. Milman's Fazio, upon professedly the same story, this purpose, for the time, was desisted from.

'It was not for me to take this quietly, and I said in my haste, nor do I repent of it at leisure, that had not my friend's friend so carelessly, perhaps, disdainfully, permitted my play to be lost, that of Mr. Milman had never seen the light. Though now so many years since, I could not bring myself to read Fazio until about the commencement of this. In the Preface, I found that Mr. Milman had built his play upon a story, which was quoted in the Annual Register for 1795, from the "Varieties of Literature;" "but great liberties," saith he, "have been taken with it." Indeed, great liberties were taken with it; so great, that it may be said of the real story, and of the work produced from it, that they are not more alike, to use a homely phrase, than chalk is like cheese; saving only and excepting the name of Fazio.

'The ground-work of Mr. Milman's play is open to every one, by referring to Dodsley's Annual Register for 1795. I found the same traditionary document, entitled Grimaldi the Miser, in an old volume of a circulating library on the coast of Kent, in 1808, when quartered there with my regiment; and a lady made an extract of it for me.'

There is evidently a pervading idea in the author's mind, that, somehow or other, (he cannot exactly shew in what way,) Mr. Milman has *filched* his subject from him; and that Grimaldi is the *elder-born* of Fazio, although the *later produced*. We can, however, assure this writer, and we hope he will believe us, notwithstanding his ill opinion of critics in ordinary, that the matter is of very little consequence concerning which he seems so anxious. Mr. Milman's play and his own are so entirely in a different taste, the art of the one and the nature of the other resting on such wholly adverse grounds, that it cannot in the least signify which actually took precedence of the other. However this may be, we unreservedly applaud the following sentiment of the author, and (we need scarcely add) completely acquiesce in the justice and truth of the "Confession of Faith" which is also subjoined:

'The next work I write shall be seen of no one, until published. *I verily believe that there is not on earth a candid, impartial, even-handed critic.* This finds fault with the simplicity of the fable, as not being sufficiently dignified for tragedy; that speaks disdainfully of a wretched miser and a foolish goldsmith as altogether unworthy of the tragic muse; the other says that he does not understand it; another, that the introduction of Error is unprecedented, as though it were a thing unheard of, that enthusiasts, and idle dreamers, astrologers, and alchemists, believed themselves to be attended by some familiar, in some form or guise or other. Such fastidious gentry would have cavilled, I fear, at Fazio in manuscript, had the author furnished them with an opportunity.'

We shall not imitate the example of these fastidious friends of the author, since they really seem to have been no better than a sixty-second edition of poor Job's comforters: but we shall, on the contrary, entertain our readers and ourselves with some extracts from the agreeable and natural work before us; which has no far-fetched imaginations or bombastic flights of poetry about it, to perplex the plain and well-meaning reader. It professes to be partly verse, and partly prose; and, although occasionally superficial readers may find some slight difficulty in fixing the bounds of each, yet to the observant this can never cause much trouble; — the printer having properly fulfilled his office, and distinguished the even from the uneven lines in every page.

Assuredly the actor must be a dull dog who could not faithfully represent the following scene, with all its minute and most judicious stage-directions:

' SCENE III.

Changes to the Inside of the House, and discovers FAZIO *contemplating a Door, whereon are affixed several Padlocks.*

Fazio. Mercy on us, what locks! — The keys will hold out, I hope. Let's try. — (*Unlocks one.*) — There, — now a fresh key. — (*Unlocks the second, as also the remainder, each with a fresh key.*) — Now for this great devil —— Capital! — (*Opens the door. In the middle of the room is seen an iron chest with five large padlocks.*)

Thou seem'st impregnable, yet I'll storm thee. —
S'death, the keys don't fit the rascal's locks.
O, that will do, — and that ——.
[*Unlocks them all, and raises up the lid, when six locks more are seen appended to an inner lid.*
O, the devil! one, two, three —— six locks more!
And no fresh keys, — come, let's try back. — (*Unlocks one.*) —
Hah! hah!
[*After trying several keys, at length opens all but one.*
There, and there, —
O, Fortune, favour me! — this cursed lock, alas!
I even now despair. — What shall I do?
My heart begins to fail. Aid me, goddess!
[*After some hesitation, flies frantically at the lock and forces it.*
Eureka! I have storm'd the fort!
[*Lifts up the second lid, and eyes the treasure with transport. Large bags appear, on each of which is inscribed 3000 ducats in gold; a casket also of gold is seen.*
What have we here?
Three thousand ducats in gold! — friend, how dost? —
[*Lifting one up.*
Three thousand ducats in gold! — four of ye!
Enchanting epigraphs, to thee I trust
Implicitly, and do for granted take,
That all is rightly told. Bags, by y're leave,
Ye must with me this night — O my darlings!
But gentle casket — all thy bracelets, rings,
And jewels rare! it grieves my heart to say,
We must not hold acquaintance. — (*Puts them back again.*) —
Confound it,
These woman's toys by some mischance might lead
To shrewd suspicion, and at length betray me, —
A sad affair, by Jupiter!
[*Closes the chest, and makes fast every lock as he found it. Takes the bags, and, after fastening every lock and door as he found them, prepares to depart.*

There: now for getting home safe, and a certain foolish goldsmith is a made man. The storm has ceased; that is not so good.
[*Exit.*'

We quote another very happy scene, the incidents and the dialogue of which are equally curious. Just before this scene, Fazio had been 'walking about *in a great stew*,' and had gone off, we conclude, in a *huff*.

'Re-enter Fazio;' — to his *cousins* Marcella and Adelaide:

'*Fazio.* Cousins, I hope you find yourselves happy and comfortable in my house, and every attention paid to you.
[*Valentina appears at a side-scene, watching.*

'*Val.* (*Aside.*) Again there! and that old pandress with them.

'*Mar.* You are exceedingly kind, and your domestics very attentive; but we fear that Signora Valentina is incommoded by us, and we're therefore thinking of taking our departure.

'*Val.* (*Aside.*) Yes, you old devil, you shall very quickly take your departure, I promise you.

'*Fazio.* Pooh, pooh, take no notice of my old wife; she is not very happy in her temper.

'*Mar.* We wish to oblige her, if possible.

'*Val.* (*Aside.*) Oblige her, hag! —— Indeed, husband, I am not happy in my temper.

'*Fazio.* I cannot part with you: your amiable daughter is greatly in my wife's esteem, notwithstanding her peevishness.

'*Val.* (*Aside.*) Amiable! —— sin is not so vile, so infamous, so ugly.

'*Fazio.* Well, I am engaged at present, and leave you to better thoughts than those of deserting your friends. [*Exit.*

[*When gone, Valentina rushes into the room, flies at Adelaide, who screams, and runs off. Marcella defends her daughter, and the old women fight. Fazio, hearing the uproar, returns.*

'*Val.* (*Attacking Adelaide.*) Strumpet!

'*Mar.* Valentina! Signora Valen——

'*Val.* (*To Marcella.*) Beldame! hell-cat! hag! (*They fight.*) Get out of my house, viper!

'*Re-enter* Fazio, *who parts the combatants.*

'*Fazio.* What in the devil's name's the matter? hah! beat my kindred?

'*Mar.* Mercy! what a tigress! [*Exit.*

'*Fazio.* Jade! how dar'st thou violate
The sacred rites of hospitality?

'*Val.* Hospitality! —— Bring your women here,
Under my nose, beneath my very roof—
Trump a long story up of want and woe,
And distant kin, reduc'd to poverty?
Wind round the gentle passions of my breast —
Make me a party in my own disgrace,
And misery 'yond all measure?

' *Enter* ERROR, *placing herself at* FAZIO'*s elbow, with seeming satisfaction; but invisible to him.*

' *Fazio.* Thy roof, virago? ——
By the blest saints that guard our holy faith,
One other stormy word, one more angry frown,
Nay, ev'n a murmur, devil's half of mine!
[*Takes a thong from a peg.*
I will that moment into manners lash thee —
Into submission, duty, and obedience;
Thy rage-uplifted back shall be as sore,
Thy sides shall be as black, thine arms as blue,
As those of the unmanageable slave
Chain'd to the galley, tugging at the oar,
When cracking whips enfold him. — Fire and flames!
Is this the language of a virtuous wife —
The chaste demeanor of the softer man?
Verily, I swear, it is the boding yell
Of goatish tricks play'd at the garden-gate,
That some Italian dames are given to,
Full many a year before their husbands dream
What beasts they have been made of.
' *Val.* Break lace! crack mountain! earth itself explode! —
Did I not see you palming with that whore?
And now to turn the tables upon me!
Swear you will lash me, call me devil,
And talk of goatish tricks at garden-gates,
And beasts, and of yourself!
' *Fazio.* There! —— and there! —— and there! ——
[*Whips her, and she runs off.* — *He walks about, exclaiming unintelligibly.*

Re-enter VALENTINA.

Again! — Raise thy voice one note above
The common key of duty and respect
From wife to husband — by the sacred earth
Dug from around the holy sepulchre,
Brought by the blest Redeemer's champions
From Salem's ancient scite into our city! —
By this great relic, I will so maul thee ——
Close thee in Bethl'em's melancholy cells,
Straw bed, dark room, and bread and water,
And shaven head, shall surely be thy lot,
Thou devil!
' *Val.* (*Aside.*) Vengeance! string my heart
Beyond ev'n injur'd woman's rage! [*Exit.*
' *Fazio.* [*Much agitated, looking after her, seemingly repenting of his violence.*
O what a world is this! ——— never so rich
Yet something always happens to annoy —
Something will still be wrong. Vexations come,
Nor come alone; but one upon another,
Seeming without end. [*Exit, and* ERROR *dances after him.*

We presume that this is nearly enough to prove that the merits of Mr. Bailey and of Mr. Milman rest on very dissimilar foundations: but we may mention some farther distinct indications of this difference; viz.:

‘ *Enter an Officer of Justice.*

‘ *Officer.* The pris'ner on the rack confess'd his guilt,
And cried aloud for instant execution;
Unloosed, he swore, by the great God of heaven,
He was not old Grimaldi's murderer.
What must we do with him?
‘ *Chief Judge.* Take him to the scaffold,
And there cut off his head — the villain!
‘ *Officer.* It shall be done. [*Exit Officer.*’

We do not recollect a more summary process than the above.

The writer manifests a good honest feeling in what follows, (and indeed throughout the play,) though somewhat coarsely expressed:

‘ *Enter a Messenger in haste.*

‘ *Anaf.* What want you?
‘ *Mess.* A priest. A bravo, at the point of death,
Confesses to the murder of Grimaldi.

‘ *Pico.* Send the devil to him; and run you with all speed to the judge, to stop the execution of Fazio.

‘ *Anaf.* Too late, I fear, for that.

‘ *Pico.* Shocking! We have no greater disgrace than midnight murder. O that I may live to see some proud lord of Italy convicted of employing a bravo: the bloody miscreant and himself hung alive in chains upon a gibbet an hundred feet high, erected upon the highest mountain in Europe, that surrounding nations may witness this act of justice; there, gnawed to death by vultures, kites, and ravens! I would have poignards excommunicated. — I know an honest country, where brawny fists decide disputes; bravely set-to by day-light, with thousands present to see fair-play: some blood is spilt, to be sure; but the parties live to talk of it another day.

‘ *Avan.* What country? and what people?
‘ *Pico.* They call them English, signior.
‘ *Avan.* English! A nest of heretics and vipers!
‘ *Pico.* They may be heretics, and vipers too;
But they are not bravos. A dagger there
Is only known by name.’

This would do for Jackson's boxing-room, and might be inscribed on the wall, under Mr. Windham's appropriate present of “ The fatal Effects of a Roman Quarrel.”

We cull a few scattered flowers.

‘ Heaven to me will be most scant of joy,
Unless I hear thee howling.’ P. 94.

This is a compliment from Fazio to his wife.

'[VALENTINA *repasses the stage lower down, and followed by the rabble.*

'*Val.* Go, go, ye ragged sons of Adam, go, —
I beseech ye, leave me, good citizens —
Leave a poor swelling heart to burst unseen,
Since he that's planted in't the festering thorn,
Comes not near.

[PICO, *crossing on the opposite side, meets* VALENTINA *and the rabble.*

'*Pico.* Varlets, stand back!
(*Aside.*) — Who have we here? a lunatic let loose?
Gramercy, madam, but I know you now.
So so; our Rosicrusian's tawdry wife,
Bantered and flouted in the public way
By rabble boys, and sauzy lazars!
(*To Valentina.*) — How fares it lady?
'*Val.* Save you, signior,
Ill enough. [*Exit.*
'*Pico.* And short enough, i'faith.' —

'*Enter* AVANZO.

'*Avan.* Why so grave, signior? — How *goes it*?
'*Pico.* Very well —— grave? thinking of my sweetheart.
Ladies may be very sweetly temper'd,
Yet not always kind.

'*Avan.* Pshaw! — a *crack man* like you heeds not such matters: dashing fellows never look grave at any thing. To speak of sweethearts otherwise than in jest, would be most unfashionable.' —

'SCENE VI.

'*Market Place. Citizens in high talk, Men, Women, and Children.*

'1*st Cit.* Have you seen the letter to his wife from Marseilles?

'2*d Cit.* I have, 'tis wonderful.

'1*st Wom.* They say, neighbour, that Fazio has boil'd a proter down to gold.

'*Little Girl. My eye, mamma!*' *

We cannot immediately mention any thing more *true to nature* than this. "*Mais, avec permission, Monsieur,*" &c. &c. (See Moore's Travels.) Did we not see our old friend "*Grimaldi*" enacting a tragic part, aye in most serious vein, some years ago? Our memory strangely fails us if this was not the case: — but what of that?

ART. IV. *The Lucubrations of Humphrey Ravelin*, Esq., late Major in the * * Regiment of Infantry. 8vo. pp. 413. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

IT is almost needless for us to observe that Humphrey Ravelin is obviously a mere *nom de guerre*, but we may add that we have also as little doubt that the soldierly description attached to it is *véritable;* for the work bears, to our apprehension, evident marks of being the production of a sensible and agreeable military man, and, as we likewise think, a native of "the Emerald isle." Sure we are that, as the perusal of his 'Lucubrations' has given us pleasure, we should promise ourselves equal and more permanent gratification in the enjoyment of his society as a *country-neighbour*, were we relatively placed in that situation. His remarks exhibit the frankness, acuteness, ease, and good feeling, which, we are proud to think and pleased to say, so often belong to the character of the experienced British officer; while they are so well conveyed, and in fact with such particular correctness, that not only few military men have the opportunity of forming and maturing so good a style, but many of our practised writers must *fall into the rear* in competition with Major *Ravelin*, who may *stand muster* with Geoffrey Crayon. Indeed, this circumstance, and some of his papers on literary topics, almost shook our belief in his warlike pretensions: but his military pictures are so justly drawn, and coloured so truly after nature, that we should not scruple to *sign his certificate for his half-pay*, had we official power for the act. Not having that power, let us discharge the functions with which we *are* invested, and shew up to our readers his merits and claims.

---

* In p. 14. we are invited to drink '‘a glass of Cypress' instead of *Cyprus*.

A letter from his brother-officer, and countryman, (we conceive,) Major O'Grady, had informed Major Ravelin that his old regiment, the second battalion of the ——, was about to be disbanded; and the former shortly afterward visits his old comrade, when the scene of the breaking up is thus drawn:

' "I assure you, Humphrey, it was bitter work, though we tried to make light of it, and had been long expecting it. They gave us but short warning, too. When we met on parade, after the Colonel had told us the contents of the order, we all endeavoured to laugh the thing off; but every joke fell desperately flat, and only made the matter worse. It was very little better at mess, though that soul of good-humour and cheer, old D———, in capacity of treasurer, insisted upon the necessity of our finishing the remains of a pipe before the evil day; because, as he said, it would be beneath our dignity and reputation for good-fellowship to bargain with the wine-merchant about taking back any remnant, any thing less than untouched pipes. So it was resolved to get through it — but the wine had not its usual flavour with us.

' "How many things by season season'd are
To their right use and true perfection.

' "The next day, when the boys had had more time to think of it, faces grew yet blanker. What worse evils, Humphrey, can stare a man in countenance, who has not a sixpence of his own, and has passed his life in a regiment, than the penury of half-pay, and the separation from every friend he has in the world?"

'"True, true," cried I, "and poor S—— would feel that.—I wonder how the devil I came not to request you to induce him to be of your party here."

'"Why, I did take upon me to ask him for you, Humphrey, but I could not prevail upon him. His pride and irritability grew stronger as the day approached. It seemed as if he looked upon the question as an insult, if you asked him where he meant to settle. He had, and perhaps wished to have, no other home than the regiment—you know, he had never left it since he joined in 'ninety-eight:' it was literally turning him out on the wide world, and yet he swore he would never join another corps. Poor fellow! we did not mind his irritability. Somehow or other, every one of the old hands seemed to display some new good quality as they were about to be separated.—

'"But the worst of the business was the farewell visits to the married people. I shall never forget the scene at R——'s lodgings. I went in to shake hands with Mrs. R—— before she set off. She was looking agitated and care-worn, and wretchedly ill, yet obliged to exert herself, with an aching heart, in preparation for the journey. Amidst all the confusion of packing, there were the children, fretful and troublesome, and ever in the way. R—— himself was walking about the room, with his hands in his pockets, labouring to put a cheerful air upon what was inevitable; now whistling Erin-go-bragh, now talking, while every expression of his countenance belied him, of the satisfaction of retiring to 'a *nate* little box in the county Carlow.' You and I know what that means well enough, Ravelin, and so did poor Mrs. R——, too, or there is no truth in physiognomy. I got the business over, you will believe, as fast as I could. But you can fancy more than one such picture as this, without my prosing over the business."

'"Yes, yes," said I, "I can indeed—but how did the men receive the news?"

'"Why, variously;—most of them were pleased, for you know novelty is every thing to a soldier, and joy at freedom was the first feeling, particularly with those entitled to pensions; but, to do them justice, they were all striving to show some little additional token of respect to their officers, as the time drew nearer. Thoughtless creatures; I well knew there would be few who would not very shortly give their ears to be back again. Some I did put out a hand to save. We had a dozen or two of the old *Peninsular* men, whose characters I completely understood; brave as Roman legionaries, and, under the restraints of discipline, not bad members of the community; but whose natural carelessness of right and wrong had not been improved by the license of campaigning. I knew if they were turned loose, they would fall into crime, and disgrace, and punishment; I could not help feeling an interest in the rascals, and I told them honestly what I foresaw. They took the hint, said they believed I was right, desired to enlist for the first battalion, and we procured permission for them to do so.

' " At last the day of our fate arrived: we were disbanded in the barrack-square, and our second battalion was extinct. We had resolved, however, to close the scene by dining together after the ceremony. The mess-room, in which many a joyous hour had flown in thoughtless merriment, was decorated for the occasion. The walls were covered, for the last time, with blazonry of the memorable days of our Peninsular services. At the head, hung those colours, in tatters, which we received in 1804, on the formation of the battalion. Besides many glorious occasions on which they have been unfurled in the field, they had accompanied us, you remember, Ravelin, where colours are rarely borne. At the assault of Rodrigo, poor R——, who afterwards fell at Badajos, ordered them to be carried forward with us, as we were, according to the arrangement for the attack, to move no farther than the *fausse braye* in the ditch; but when we did afterwards, contrary to the original intention, advance to the breach itself, they of course went with us."

' " They did," said I, " and R——, gallant fellow as he was, seized one of them himself, when he led the men on."

' " Opposite to them, Humphrey, hung the new colours which we received on our landing from Spain. We had hoped that they, too, would have lost their freshness like the old ones. There was no servility now in forcing the Colonel into the chair, and he felt the compliment justly. As we moved into the room for the last time, and the band struck up our regimental march, a chord of sympathy was touched within us. But I hate these idle recollections — let's have done with them. I shall tell you only of the close. The cloth was removed, and the first toast, standing and in silence, was — ' The memory of the second battalion.' We had a stripling in the corps who fancied himself a poet. He had joined us too late to share in the days of our triumphs, but he loved the regiment with all the enthusiasm of a boy, and he would strive to celebrate its glories. He had a song for the occasion, and it was sung by another of the lads after the toast.

' " Doggrel as it was, Humphrey, we could not stand it. Old D—— cried like a child. ' Can't help it, boys, can't help it,' was all his apology. We were a parcel of old fools, Ravelin, for there were few dry eyes among us. We appealed to the bottle for a cheerful parting, but our success was but indifferent. I determined to see no more of my old comrades, since separate we must; and they had not risen from their last meeting, when I stole away and threw myself into the chaise which was to bear me towards your cheerful nest." '

We call this a good picture, delineated with spirit and feeling, from the life. — Many other passages, viz. the chapters on *the Day of Badajos*, *the West Indies*, *Military Life*, and *Indian Warfare*, sufficiently display the red coat of the author; while his story of *Emily Milburne*, arising out of his professional career, evinces his powers of writing with feeling, and his habits of thinking with correctness and acting with honor. The non-military history of *Templeton*, also, will excite the interest of the reader as it seems to have engaged that of the Major, and affords a good lesson to the gay and the thoughtless. Its display of ready submission to the charms of luxury and dissipation, with their frequently inevitable consequences, is indeed nothing new: but the resolute and successful extrication from them, which Mr. and Mrs. Templeton effected, is (we fear) as seldom accomplished as it is laudable, and is highly deserving of practical imitation. The beauty of the story is perhaps injured by the parties being ultimately restored to opulence, through the common-place machinery of the bequest of a second fortune: but the idea may serve to make the bitter pill of reduction more easily swallowed, and therefore we excuse it.

We must give another specimen of Major O'Grady, which will also introduce the author's nephew, and his own old regimental servant, a sort of Corporal Trim. After having discursed on the pleasures of recalling, in the tranquillity of retirement, the events and persons of past life, Major Ravelin proceeds:

'I never live over again through the adventures of former years with so much fulness of enjoyment as when my friend O'Grady surprises me with a visit, and takes up his quarters at my fireside, in the well founded conviction that his presence is hailed with as much satisfaction as the appearance of the sun after a rainy bivouac. O'Grady might be adduced as a favourable ensample of a character which, where it is really found, is among the choicest ornaments of society — the Irish gentleman; the man whose national fire and vivacity have been tempered and chastened by education and reflection, by knowledge of the world, and long acquaintance with its vicissitudes; whose impetuous courage has been softened, by a kindly heart and sound judgment, into polished urbanity and unoffending dignity; who has learnt to restrain the impulses of an open and generous nature by the stern rule of integrity: a delightful and a safe companion, a sincere friend, and an honest man. An early comrade of mine used to say that the land of the shamrock yielded two very opposite productions for exportation; the *gentleman* from Ireland, and the Irish gentleman. Of the latter I would ask no better specimen than O'Grady; and whatever could be crowded into the reverse of the medal might serve for the other.' —

'There is no one who can bandy recollections with me like O'Grady; and, in the intervals between his visits, my cottage seems almost a desert. Not that I am altogether without society, but there is no repository of the adventures of other days to equal my old chum. My nephew, to be sure, is a tolerable listener, but he cannot assist in awakening the train of remembrance; and he has besides an incorrigible habit of falling asleep in the midst of the most interesting narrative. Add to this, the greater part of the short period which he is able to pass under my roof is exhausted in scouring his brain of the learned dust and cobwebs which he gathers from law tomes during his residence in chambers. When the fellow first comes to me his head is completely addled; his conversation is made up of nothing but the poison of professional jargon; and his merriment goes no farther than the last new pun of some facetious barrister. When I offer to show him the progress of my great work on the pike, during his absence, he knows no more than his pointer where we left off before, though it should have been in the midst of one of my most entertaining dissertations; and he is many days in the house before his cudgels are ready for controversy upon some question of the wars of antiquity — the only military subjects on which, using the cant of his vocation, he declares himself "prepared to join issue with me." Argument, in truth, is happiness to him; but he prides himself, like Parson Adams, in his ignorance of modern times; or, which comes to the same thing, of modern tactics, for they form the principal attraction of history; and I am perfectly persuaded that he would be puzzled to answer how the discipline introduced by Gustavus Adolphus differed from the practice of the Black Bands of the sixteenth century, or any other question of equal simplicity. And, indeed, O'Grady himself is too apt to treat the philosophic history of tactics with indifference; and, rushing into the contrary extreme from my nephew, to date the rise of real military science from the commencement of the Peninsular war. But he, at least, qualifies his opinion with the confession, that he is not so deeply read in these matters as myself; while the young lawyer, with classical insolence, will wrangle by the hour for the maintenance of any extravagant tactical paradox, as long as you leave him on the vantage ground of antiquity; and will mouth Xenophon, Thucydides, and Polybius, with all the pomp of refutation or proof. He knows I am not a Grecian, and, I believe, avails himself of the circumstance to wrest his author, as it suits him, to his argument; for I once detected him in endeavouring to prove two diametrically opposite propositions from the same passage, in The Retreat of the Ten Thousand. —

'In his last sojourning with me, and since he has discovered the use of this heavy artillery, with which I am totally unprovided, he has become more dogmatical than ever. For three or four evenings we had been closely engaged at our usual points of contest, and, as he amused himself by systematically contradicting every opinion which I advanced, the argument gained a spice of acrimony at each sitting. One more encounter would, I verily believe, have obliged me to quarrel with the jackanapes; but an agreeable interruption saved me from a necessity to which I should have been loth to submit. In the *tête-à-tête* of the preceding evening he had been yet more than usually obstinate; and I had, after breakfast, just taken down a volume of Livy to convince or convict him, though he declared that he would submit to no other authority, on ancient tactics, than the Greek writers, when Havresack put his head in at the door, with a joyous grin of satisfaction, and shouted out that Major O'Grady's tilbury was driving up to the gate.

'"I am glad of it, with all my heart," said my nephew, following the musketeer out to welcome the guest; "we shall have some capital sport if he has brought his double-barrel."

'"I wish from my soul," exclaimed I, as I hastened after him to give my friend the pump-handle shake, "that O'Grady would turn to the study of ancient warfare. I would fit him out in Guichardts, Folards, Cæsars, Livies, Ælians, and Vegetiuses, in endless array. It might be to some purpose to discuss these matters with an experienced soldier, who does not pride himself by profession in selecting the worst side of a case."

'"He must read Polybius and Xenophon in the originals though, uncle," rejoined young *Latitat,* "before he can pass judgment on these subjects."

'Havresack was already at the gate; and, receiving his old officer with an obeisance something between the brisk touch o' the hat of the valet, and the formal military salute of the soldier, hoped he saw his honour in good health. "Wolfe looks for all the world as well as if he had never been out of an English stable," said Jonathan, with an approach to familiarity, in which he is accustomed to indulge towards both O'Grady and myself: "but he seems, too, as though he did not much fancy being in harness," added he, as he stroked the mane of the old charger, who stood pawing the ground and snorting in the shafts of the tilbury. "Perhaps not, Jonathan," said O'Grady; "but you see that, like us all, in these piping days of peace, Wolfe has 'fallen from his high estate.'"

'Jonathan comprehended enough of my brother-major's observation to follow it up with an expression of pity. "Poor fellow! he shall have a good billet and full ration, your honour, depend upon it, while he stands in my charge," laying an emphasis on the epithet of self-importance. "Soh! Wolfe, soh! stand, my brave boy; your honour 'll have me take care of the old campaigner, too, (throwing the camblet-cloak over his arm,) that you used to say all the waters of the Tagus might run over without getting through. It has seen some hard weather in its time, that's certain. You'll remember the picquet on the Pyrennees, Sir; there was wet enough any way to try it that night, if the French had left us quiet to get our fill of it — You've not forgotten that same night, Major O'Grady, when I was on duty with your company?"

'There was, indeed, little chance that my friend should forget it; for honest Jonathan never failed to revert to the circumstance, with great regularity, on the return of each one of O'Grady's periodical visits. The truth is, that Havresack had shown particular gallantry on that occasion; and though he did not care to speak of his own exploits, he had a secret pride in the recollection, which oozed out through the chinks of his loquacity.'

We wish that we had room for some of the Major's drawings of different scenes: but we must unwillingly close the book, and recommend it to our readers as a very amusing and pleasing recreation for a few spare hours.

Art. V. *A Letter to Charles Henry Parry*, M.D. F.R.S., on the Influence of Artificial Eruptions, in certain Diseases incidental to the Human Body, with an Inquiry respecting the probable Advantages to be derived from further Experiments. By Edward Jenner, M.D. LL.D. F.R.S. &c. &c. &c. 4to. pp. 67. Baldwin and Co. 1822.

This is the last work which was given to the public by the late Dr. Jenner, not long before his decease; and it bears evidence of that ingenuity of research, that modest unpretending demeanor, and that ardent philanthropy, which distinguished its author throughout his illustrious career. It would be wholly out of place here to attempt to offer an extended estimate of his character, or of the importance of that discovery which, it will not be denied, intitles him to the name of a benefactor to mankind: but we may be permitted to express our firm conviction that a longer and more extensive experience of the vaccine innoculation, than we have yet had, will remove those unfavorable anticipations of ultimate disappointment, which some persons in the present day are inclined to indulge; and that careful and enlightened research will expose the fallacy of the opinion, which calls into doubt the actual diminution of the general mortality by the introduction of this protecting disease.

The object of the letter before us is to present to its readers the practical results of exciting artificial eruptions, in diseases more particularly of the respiratory organs, of the brain, and of the nervous system; and to throw out, in a brief manner, hints of those theoretical views on different points of pathology, which seem to have amused the distinguished author in his retirement. The stimulating application which he employed, to excite this irritation on the skin, was the tartar emetic ointment; and the effect which it produces is certainly very striking. It is, in fact, a distinct pustular eruption, evidently affecting the true skin, but, in no instance which has been submitted to our observation, attended by any febrile symptoms: while the relief which has followed this mode of treatment, in many cases of affection of the chest, and of mental derangement, is such as must intitle it to a large share of our confidence. The cases in illustration detailed by Dr. Jenner, many of which occurred in his own practice, and others in that of his friends, afford the most decided evidence in its favor: but we shall refer our readers to the letter itself for the particulars, which are highly interesting.

The practice is not indeed new, nor is it claimed as such by Dr. Jenner: for it forms the subject of a paper by Dr. Bradley in the Transactions of the Medical Society so far back as 1773; and it has since been adopted by different practitioners, both in Great Britain and on the Continent. Mr. Pearson, also, whose learning and talents have long been justly appreciated, has detailed a very interesting case of painful affection of the thumb, with rigidity and exquisite sensibility of the arm, in which a perfect cure was effected by exciting a vesicular eruption with fever, by means of the sulphuric acid ointment. (Med. and Chir. Trans. vol. viii. p. 152.) There is consequently nothing specific in the operation of the tartar emetic ointment; other irritants being capable of producing similarly beneficial results.

Dr. Jenner has also brought together many instances of the relief experienced by the constitution, from the appearance of cutaneous eruptions; and he considers the efflorescence which follows the swallowing of poisonous mushrooms, and other substances, as a kind of sanative process effected by the powers of the system to prevent injurious consequences. In the two most formidable of the exanthemata, plague, and small-pox, the imperfection of the eruptions is well known to be a most unfavorable symptom. He admits, however, that an excess of cutaneous irritation may prove hurtful, and even destructive; for to this action, together with inflammation of the mucous membrane of the throat and air-passages, he ascribes the secondary fever of small-pox; and hence he is led to suggest the use of sedative applications, when the pustules are formed so thickly on the cutis, as to augment in a high degree the secondary fever. In the case of a young woman who had a full burden of pustules on the face, one cheek was sopped with *liquor litharg.*, while the pustules on the other were allowed to take their course; and on the cheek thus treated the effect was very manifest, the pustules having been so much checked that they could scarcely be said to have maturated. (P. 40.)

Impressed with the probable benefits of this treatment, the author some years ago suggested to Dr. Woodville, and afterward to Dr. Adams, the propriety of sopping the skin with *liq. plumbi*, or wrapping the patient in sheets wetted with it, in some of those desperate cases which occur at the Small-pox Hospital, and in which fatal effects must inevitably follow if the disease be left to run its course: but no attention was paid to the proposal. Should this or some similar mode of treatment, however, prove successful, Dr. Jenner well remarks, 'Nature would probably require that we should leave here and there a cluster of pustules; *e. g.* in a leg or arm, or any other convenient part, to go through their courses.' — The effects produced on the constitution by repelling chronic eruptions are sufficiently authenticated, although the danger of curing these diseases is a source of much greater dread to continental than to British practitioners:— but, in the exanthemata, as in measles and small-pox, the sudden disappearance or fading of the eruption is acknowleged by every one to be fraught with distress and danger.

The excitement of artificial eruptions is suggested by Dr. Jenner as a means of cure not only in rheumatism, typhus, yellow fever, contagious catarrh, and dysentery, but also in tetanus and hydrophobia. His opinions regarding the nature of dysentery and tetanus have somewhat startled us; for they are altogether new, and we believe that they are groundless. The former of these diseases is considered by him as, in the first instance, an affection of the brain, the visceral derangement being merely a consequence; and the latter he assimilates to hydrophobia, referring it to the absorption of an altered pus, which, from being healthy, has suddenly become capable of producing intense spasmodic disease. Without adopting this theory, but considering tetanus as a malady affecting the muscular nerves, we are inclined to try the effect of counter-irritation to the origins of these nerves; and we would recommend accordingly that the tartar emetic ointment should be rubbed along the whole spine, and its application repeated so freely as to ensure full irritation, with a plentiful eruption of pustules. Probably, the ointment recommended by Mr. Pearson would be even preferable, because its effects are more speedy, and the general irritation much more severe.

The memory of the author, whose last literary effort we have now considered, must continue to be cherished while science and letters shall be preserved among us; and may the amiable and excellent qualities of his heart diffuse, by the force of example, a benign influence over the members of that profession of which he was so long the ornament and pride!

ART. VI. *History of Cultivated Vegetables;* comprising their Botanical, Medicinal, Edible, and Chemical Qualities; Natural History; and Relation to Art, Science, and Commerce. By Henry Phillips, Author of the "History of Fruits known in Great Britain." Second Edition. 2 Vols. 8vo. About 400 Pages in each. 1*l.* 1*s.* Boards. Colburn and Co. 1822.

THE first edition of this work appears to have "*vanished by a quaint device;*" or, at least, it has escaped our vigilance: but in our ninety-fifth volume (p. 136.) our readers will find a report of the *Pomarium Britannicum* of the same author. From the multitude of plants which are cultivated in this country, for pleasure or for use, Mr. Phillips has now selected such as he deemed most deserving of general attention; and he has also introduced some species which, though not strictly cultivated, are well worthy of commemoration. With a view to impart additional popularity to his lucubrations, he has so completely divested them of the technicalities of botany, that we often search in vain for the scientific denominations of the species which pass under review, and that his nomenclature becomes in some cases ambiguous. His text is, however, printed on a fair and ample type, and is in various respects kindly accommodated to the capacity and attainments of the mere country gentleman. As the order of the subjects discussed is almost invariably that of the alphabet, the book is obviously intended for easy reference, and perhaps more for that purpose than for continuous perusal. None of the articles exhaust the materials which might have been assigned to them, and every one of them might furnish more or less scope for critical annotation: but, when we have premised that *Cabbage*, *Cotton*, *Flax*, *Indigo*, *Sago*, *Saffron*, *Sugar*, *Tea*, *Tobacco*, *Wheat*, &c., afford both amusing and instructive information, we shall be contented to offer a few remarks, and to cite a few passages which, among many others, have presented themselves to our attention in the course of our examination of the volumes.

Several interesting particulars are noted under *Artichoke* and *Asparagus*. The latter, it is hinted, might be still improved by the importation of roots from the borders of the Euphrates, where the plants naturally attain to an uncommon degree of thickness; and some important suggestions might possibly be derived from the cultivators of this delicate vegetable at St. Denis, in the neighbourhood of Orleans, &c., where it is reared in a very superior style.

> 'Asparagus is now obtained by the attentive gardener at all seasons of the year, and the same plants are made to give two crops in the year by the following method: towards the end of

July, especially if it be rainy weather, cut down the stalks of the plants, fork up the beds, and rake them. If it be dry, water them with the drainings of a dunghill, or with water wherein horse or cow dung has been steeped; leave the beds rather flat instead of the usual round shape, in order that they may retain all the moisture. In ten or fourteen days the asparagus will begin to appear: if the weather is dry, continue to water the beds two or three times a week. By this method you may cut asparagus till about the end of September, at which time the produce of the hot-beds will be ready; so that, with five or six hot-beds during the winter, you may have a regular succession of this agreeable vegetable for every month of the year.'

Mr. P. might have furnished his readers with more specific directions concerning the saving of the seed, rearing, cutting, &c.; and he might have adverted to the popular prejudice against the use of dung, since the sweetest asparagus is found to be that which is raised on the richest soil.

We are ignorant of those *modern botanists* who deny that the *Lancashire Asphodel*, noticed by Gerarde, is a native of this country; for it abounds in many of our turf-bogs, and is the well-known *Narthecium Ossifragum* of the more recent nomenclature: but the author may have fancied that Gerarde alluded to a genuine *Asphodelus*.

The subject of porter-brewing is naturally connected with the economical history of *Barley*; and we recollect the lamentable occurrence of the explosion of one of Mr. Meux's large vats: but the first part of the author's description of that unfortunate accident would lead us to infer a much greater extent of calamity than he himself states, almost with the same breath. 'The porter rushed,' we are told, 'with such an impetuous current, that the adjoining steeets resembled rivers that had burst their banks, and the surrounding houses were so instantly filled with this liquor, *that the inhabitants, who had no means of escape, were drowned as they sat at breakfast.* The vat was nearly 100 feet in circumference, 36 feet over, 22½ feet in height, and contained 3556 barrels, or 128,016 gallons, and *caused the death of eight persons by its bursting.*' — Some notices might have been inserted of the more marked species and varieties of barley, with their respective adaptations to particular soils and climates; as well as of Proust's excellent analysis of this grain, in the fifth volume of the *Annales de Chimie*, and the dietetical and medical inferences deducible from it.

The early history of the apparently insignificant *Basil* is little else than a tissue of superstitious prejudices; even Lord Bacon could believe in its conversion into thyme; and Hollerius leras roundly asserts that an Italian, by frequently smelling this herb, bred a scorpion in his brain.

The Linnéan generic name of our garden *Bean* is not *Faba*, but *Vicia*, the former being only its trivial appellation. Mr. Phillips regales us, in his usual manner, with the absurd notions entertained by the learned and unlearned men of antiquity, with regard to this alleged vegetable: but, had he perused the ingenious communication of M. Petit-Radel to the Royal Institute, he would probably have concurred with him in thinking that the interdict of Pythagoras, and of the Roman Flamines, referred to the fruit of the Carob-tree, or St. John's bread; (*Ceratonia Siliqua*;) which has a bloody aspect, and which is found represented on sarcophagi, sepulchral lamps, &c. It is, however, of more consequence to remark that the Mazagan variety of bean is the best for an early crop, but that it should be procured, every two or three years, from its native soil, because otherwise it will ripen more tardily. 'We have found it an excellent plan, in procuring late beans, to cut down the stalks after the crop is gathered for the kitchen; they then soon sprout up again, and, if showery weather succeeds, yield a better supply than is obtained by late planting. In the summer of 1820, the author had some Windsor beans so much blighted, that they produced but little more than the original seed; but when cut down, they yielded an excellent crop in the month of November.' — It is perhaps not generally known to our British gardeners that a variety, called the *Coffee-bean*, is cultivated in Alsace, and used as a substitute for the genuine coffee-berry.

Mr. Phillips's account of *Beet* is somewhat superficial and confused, for the red and white species should have been more clearly discriminated throughout; and the maritime, which is too much neglected on our shores, as also the vaunted *Mangel Würtzel*, should not have been overlooked.

Since the merits of *Burnet-grass* (*Poterium sanguisorba*), as winter and spring fodder, have been much discussed by agricultural writers, a summary of the arguments for and against its cultivation would have been more desirable than to be told, in the language of Gerarde, that "it is pleasant to be eaten in sallads; in which it is thought to make the heart merry and glad, as also being put into wine, to which it yeeldeth a certain grace in the drinking."

In the section on *Cabbage*, the preparation and anti-scorbutic qualities of *Sour-kraut* might have found a place. — The derivation of *Cauliflower* from *caulis* and *fero* was needlessly far-fetched, when *flos* was just at hand, and the French chou-fl such a ready illustration. — The *Bore-cole*, though now too much despised, forms an excellent winter green, and endures our severest frosts, which only make it more tender. For a similar reason, we would beg leave to recommend attention to the Lapland variety of turnip-rooted cabbage, which is now so advantageously cultivated in France, and will continue to vegetate even under frost and snow.

'In the Economical Journal of France, the following method of guarding cabbages from the depredation of caterpillars is stated to be infallible; and may, perhaps, be equally serviceable against those which infect other vegetables.

'Sow a belt of hemp-seed round the borders of the ground where the cabbages are planted, and although the neighbourhood be infected with caterpillars, the space inclosed by the hemp will be perfectly free, and not one of these vermin will approach it.

'We have known brocoli preserved from the injury of the severest winters, by being taken out of the ground late in the autumn, and replanted in a slanting direction. This experiment was made in the year 1819, with such success, that they all flowered in the following spring, although there was scarcely a single head out in all the extensive plantations at Fulham, that survived the inclemency of that winter.'

Crambe, though a distinct genus, is brought under *Brassica*; and the maritime species is represented as growing out of the clefts of precipitous rocks, and procured at great risk by boys let down with ropes. Here seems to be some confusion with *Samphire*; for sea-kale grows plentifully on some of our beaches, and the blanched stems only are used at our tables.

The economical history of the *Caper* is in course limited, and sufficiently obvious: but we should caution the admirers of this seasoning against a too intense green color, induced by the hazardous application of oxyd of copper, which some of the dealers scruple not to employ.

Many, according to this author, are the medical virtues of *Fennel*: but we could wish to find them confirmed by less obscure authorities than those of Petridtus, Mycton, and Crats. Though naturally a biennial plant, it may be kept alive for several years by preventing it from coming into flower.

In the course of his remarks on the early manufacture of linen, Mr. Phillips informs us that he 'has now in his possession a piece of linen cloth, *which was woven in Egypt as long back as the Trojan war*. It will naturally be surmised, that it is a part of the envelope of a mummy. In comparing this cloth *to* that of our linen of the same fineness, and examining them through a microscope, it is observed, that the warp of the antient linen is not so close as that of the present make, but that the woof is pressed much closer: it would *consequently be more* durable, wear softer, and be less susceptible of soil, than modern linen cloth.' — Although *Asbestos* is not included among our *cultivated vegetables*, it obtains a share of the author's generous attention, under the head of *Flax;* and well it deserves to be noticed, since, according to Dr. Plot, when taken red hot out of the fire, *it did not burn a piece of white paper, on which it was laid.*

The enumeration of virtues ascribed to the *House-leek* is far from scanty: but most of them, we believe, are now much discarded from practice. — A very singular fact relative to the economy of this plant has been noticed by Petit Thouars, namely, the occasional conversion of its stamens into pistils.

We could have gladly exchanged some of the erudition on the purple and scarlet dyes of Tyre, &c. for more pointed information relative to the preparation of *Indigo.* The process by decoction, as practised in Egypt, Ceylon, &c. appears to be the least precarious; and Giobert, of Turin, in his *Traité sur les Pastel*, has applied to it the lights of modern chemistry.

Under the title *Lettuce*, the reader might naturally expect some reference to the employment of the wild sort in the manufactory of Chinese pottery; to the great multiplication of the cultivated varieties, which now amount to at least a hundred and fifty; and to the substitute for opium which may be extracted from the *Virosa.*

We were surprized to find some of the *Fuci* very unceremoniously ranked among *Mosses*, and the vesicles on the leaves of a species which the author denominates *Quercus Marinus* assimilated to the *blight on oak-leaves.*

The germination of the mushroom-tribes might have been more distinctly elucidated from the writings of Palisot-Beauvois, Bulliard, and Bosc, which have principally contributed to remove the doubts of naturalists on this apparently mysterious subject. The members of the fungous families may now be regarded as organized nearly in the same manner as stameniferous vegetables; possessing fibres, vessels, and roots; and producing a sort of seminiform germs, without which their reproduction cannot be accomplished. They do not perish until they have left forms like their own, destined to be developed, to grow, and to decline. That any of the species are capable of being converted into nourishment, in the human stomach, appears to be very doubtful: but the greater part of them, especially in the latter stages of their growth, are more or less deleterious; and their noxious qualities are best counteracted by vegetable acids.

Mr. Phillips seems to be as much puzzled as many of his precursors to assign the native country of our cultivated *Oat*: but Olivier *assures us that it is* indigenous to Persia.

Of *Parsley* it is asserted, without qualification or reserve, that, when rubbed against a glass goblet or tumbler, it will break it: though the cause of this phænomenon, it is gravely added, is not known. Having doubts of the phænomenon itself, we were curious or idle enough to make the experiment, without affecting the integrity of the glass.

The *Potatoe* justly occupies some interesting pages: but we are somewhat sceptical as to its introduction into Ireland by Sir Walter Raleigh. The *Arracacha*, a native of the Cordilleras, in New Grenada, is announced as still superior to that popular root in taste, usefulness, and produce; and the Horticultural Society of London were no sooner apprized of its properties, than they made arrangements for having it introduced into England.

To the information which the author communicates relative to the *Radish*, and its varieties, might have been added a discovery of some importance, by a member of the Patriotic Society of Milan; namely, that a considerable quantity of oil, in quality inferior only to that of olives, may be obtained from the seeds of the Chinese species, which resists the most intense frosts. It thrives best in a rich and loose soil, and should be sown in September; in which case it will yield its very large and numerous seeds in May.

Rice would admit a more extended discussion, consistently with views of utility. The mountain-variety, which is reared in Cochin-China, and (as alleged) without irrigation, is nevertheless exposed to almost daily rains, during the season of its growth. Some notice might have been taken of the unavailing attempts to reduce this grain to the form of a palatable or wholesome bread. Parmentier, in fact, assigns a satisfactory chemical reason for the futility of all such experiments; viz. the want of the requisite degree of gluten. With regard to its culture in the warmer regions of Europe, the frequent floodings which are indipensable to its growth often prove a serious and extensive source of intermittent fevers, and other maladies, emanating from the combination of heat and humidity.

Mr. P. might have adverted to the use of *Rye* as an excellent fresh winter-fodder for cattle, till the month of March, when little else than dry food can be procured; and, if sown somewhat thickly, it will moreover yield a grain-crop in the proper season. In some districts of the north of France, the farmers have adopted this practice with great advantage; and the Siberian variety has been found the fittest for the purpose. The disease termed *ergot*, to which this grain is liable, especially in wet seasons, and which is often attended with such fatal consequences, is now ascertained to be produced by a parasitical fungus, the *Sclerotium clavus* of Decandolle. The only effectual mode of checking its progress is to pluck off every affected ear, before it arrives at maturity. If much of this *horned* rye, as it is called, be allowed to enter into the composition of bread, the persons who eat of it are seized with a dry gangrene, which sometimes terminates in the loss of their limbs.

'*Sage*,' we are told, 'is so called in English from the French word *sage* (wise), from the property it is said to possess of strengthening the memory, and thus making people sage or wise.' In this statement, however, we can discern little etymological *wisdom*, our form of the word being obviously deduced from the French *sauge*, which is a corruption of *salvia*, the Latin name of the plant. It is, however, of more consequence to remark, that 'the Dutch have been long in the habit of drying sage-leaves to resemble tea, for which they collect not only their own growth, but also great quantities from the south of France; this they pack in cases, and take out to China, where for every pound of sage they get in exchange four pounds of tea; the Chinese preferring it to the best of their own tea.' Most of the species of this numerous family, when distilled on a large scale, yield camphor, which is collected without difficulty. Fifty-four species of sage, most of them new, are enumerated in Humboldt's and Bonpland's work on the plants of South America edited by Kunth.

Spinach suggests the well-known story of Fontenelle's unfeeling epicurism respecting the mode of dressing it, in consequence of the sudden death of a friend, who was expected to dine with him, and whose taste did not coincide with his own. When treating of this favorite pot-herb, the author touches on *Orach*, &c.: but he strangely confounds *Chenopodium Bonus Henricus* with *Mercurialis perennis*, the latter of which grows in woods, and is poisonous.

The ensuing passages, which occur in the account of *Tobacco*, are not undeserving of transcription:

> 'Sir Walter Raleigh brought the Virginia tobacco to this country about the year 1586, and it is related that he was the first who brought tobacco into repute; but, by the caution he took in smoking it privately, it appears he did not intend that it should be copied. But sitting one day in a deep meditation, with a pipe in his mouth, he inadvertently called to his man to bring him a tankard of small ale: the fellow coming into the room, threw all the liquor in his master's face, and running down stairs, bawled out, "Fire! help! Sir Walter has studied till his head's on fire,

and the smoke bursts out of his mouth and nose." After this, Sir Walter made it no secret, and took two pipes just before he went to be beheaded.'—

'The smoking of tobacco is carried to such an excess by the Turks, that they are rarely to be seen without a pipe, and never enter into business without smoking, which often gives them an advantage over the Christians with whom they have either commercial or political transactions, as they smoke a considerable time and reflect before giving a reply to any question. To visit them on business previously to their morning pipe, would only subject the intruder to their caprice and ill-humour. An ingenious friend, who has resided several years in Constantinople, and had opportunities of associating with the higher classes of that city, assures us that two thousand pounds is no uncommon price for a Turk to give for the amber mouth-piece of a tobacco-pipe, exclusive of the bowl or the pipe, the latter of which is made of a branch of the jasmine tree, for the summer use, while those for winter smoking are uniformly made of the branches of the cherry tree. In order to obtain them of a regular size without being tapering, the young shoots of these trees have a weight affixed at their extremities to bend them downwards, which prevents the sap from returning to the body of the tree, and causes them to swell equally in all parts. The rind or bark is carefully preserved to prevent the escape of the fume through the pores of the wood. The wealthy Turks pride themselves on the beauty and number of their pipes; and the principal servant in their establishment has no other charge than that of attending to the pipes and tobacco, which are presented to the master or his guests by a servant of an inferior rank. These pipes are so regularly and effectually cleaned, as always to have the delicacy of a new tube, while the German pipe, on the contrary, is enhanced in value by the length of time it has been in use. We are told by the same friend that he has seen among the lower class of Armenians and Jews in Turkey, some smokers who could consume the whole tobacco of a bowl twice the size of those used in England, and draw the entire fumes into their bodies at one breath, which they discharge from their ears as well as their mouth and nostrils.'—

'This vegetable still continues to form so considerable a branch of commerce in this country, that a store-room has lately been erected in the London Docks, for the exclusive purpose of housing tobacco, which covers with one roof a space of nearly six acres of ground, and which is perhaps the largest room ever built. This immense store-room is, when empty, an object of wonder; but on seeing it full of tobacco our amazement must be increased, by reflecting on the extent of our trade, and on the singular destination of such an enormous heap of half-putrefied leaves.'

Wheat might have afforded an opportunity of noticing a spring-variety, cultivated in Bengal and Egypt, which yields two crops; and which was introduced into France a few years ago by M. Cossigny, and is now advantageously adopted in

Belgium. According to M. Bottin, a spirited Flemish agriculturist, it may be sown even as late as May, and reaped in about a hundred days after the seed has been committed to the soil. On the same quantity of ground, it produces more than the common sorts; it will thrive even on poor soils; it is less liable than the ordinary kind to mildew and smut; it gives a heavy grain; and it will bear three cuttings, for fodder, in summer. Such, at least, are stated to be the results of experiments conducted on a large scale, during six or seven years, in the neighbourhood of Ypres, Bruges, and Bruxelles.

The discoveries of Humboldt and Bonpland might have suggested some additional annotations on the article *Yam.* The *Discorea sativa*, Lin., is rather indistinctly described; and its synonyms would lead us to infer that it has been predicated of more than one species, while that which is cultivated in the open air, in the Parisian Botanic Garden, can scarcely be a tropical plant. The *Alata*, however, is readily recognized, and appears to be most extensively useful in both the Indies.

The introduction of summary statements of some of the more recent, useful, and practical discoveries would, we apprehend, have been easily effected, without swelling the size of the volumes, by a more sparing allowance of quotations from Gerarde, and others; for surely a few sentences might suffice as samples of the credulity and *naïveté* of the elder botanists. At the same time, we mean not to insinuate that the present work is a tasteless compilation, or " a thing of shreds and patches;" for the author occasionally favors us with the results of his own observations; and the anecdotes and historical allusions, which he has blended with his didactic details, are calculated to relieve the attention, and to render the appropriate business of the book more inviting to general readers. He should, however, have been a little more scrupulous with regard to the correct orthography of proper and scientific names; since we perceive that honest *Gerarde* is frequently defrauded of his final *e*, which is almost uniformly appended to *Bauhin:* for *Apis*, we have *Apes;* for *Cycas*, *Cycus;* for *Dauphiny*, *Dauphine;* for *Bulliard*, *Builliard;* for *Monardes*, *Monardis;* for *Kæmpfer*, *Kempser;* and for *Dillenius*, *Dillen*, *Linnæus.*

Art. VII. *An Historical and Descriptive Account of the Steam-Engine;* comprising a General View of the various Modes of employing Elastic Vapour as a Prime Mover in Mechanics: with an Appendix of Patents and Parliamentary Papers connected with the Subject. By Charles Frederick Partington, of the London Institution. 8vo. 18*s.* Boards. Taylor. 1822.

Of all the inventions and discoveries of the eighteenth century, no one can boast such high importance as the Steam-Engine. To this machine we are indebted for much of the external and internal power of England in the scale of nations, as also for many of the conveniences and comforts of life, particularly in the abundant supply of coals, and every other mineral production; for without the wonderful aid which has thus been afforded, many of our most productive mines would have been shut up, and their immense treasures have remained buried in the bowels of the earth.

The early history of this noble invention is involved in some obscurity, and the honor of it has been claimed by the Italians, the French, and the English. The former maintain that Brancas was the first who employed steam as a motive force; in which assertion they are perhaps correct: but his engine, if it may so be called, is so distinct from any of those that followed, and so inapplicable to any useful purpose, that it scarcely deserves to be mentioned in connection with the history of the steam-engine. A much closer approximation to an useful mechanical action is that which is mentioned by the Marquis of Worcester, about the middle of the seventeenth century: but still it must be acknowleged that it is impossible, from what is found in that work, to form any correct idea of the author's mechanical principle of action; and it is probable that he never attempted any application of his ideas beyond the first experiments. In 1683, an English mechanist, son of Sir Samuel Morland, conceived the first practical construction of a steam-engine, and is said to have actually exhibited his apparatus at St. Germains, before the French monarch: but it is by no means certain that it was applied to any practical purpose. A very distinct idea of the machine was however formed, and several particulars were detailed respecting the length, diameter, &c. of the steam-cylinders, the weights which they would be capable of raising, &c.: so that, under all circumstances, we cannot perceive the justice of the French pretensions to the honor of this invention for Papin, who published his ideas on the subject in 1695, viz. twelve years after Morland had exhibited his experiments in France.

With equal inconsistency, some English writers claim the invention of the atmospheric engine on the ground of Newcomen's and Savery's patent, which followed Papin's description about the same number of years that intervened between the latter and the suggestions of Morland. From this time, however, the steam-engine may be considered as the creation of English genius; all the most remarkable and important improvements that it has undergone having had their rise among us, with the exception perhaps of some of very recent date which we owe to America. To that country we are undoubtedly indebted for carrying into complete effect the art of navigating by steam, although the idea of such an application had its birth in England, a patent having been taken out specifically for this purpose by Mr. J. Hulls, as far back as the year 1736; and though, for some reason, not now perhaps well known, the proposition did not suceeed, we believe that the practice was never altogether laid aside from that date to the commencement of the present century, when it was so successfully brought into use by the Americans.

It is rather surprizing that a subject of such vast importance has not, long before this time, been treated distinctly and at length by some of the able engineers which this country possesses: but, till the publication of the present volume by Mr. Partington, we believe that we had no English work on the subject, farther than detached articles in our Encyclopaedias, and slight descriptions of particular engines, connected with other matter, in our treatises on mechanics, &c. The present performance will therefore fill a blank in our scientific libraries, and be an acceptable acquisition to those amateurs of art who are unwilling to be altogether uninformed on the principles of a machine of such an extensive application. We are only sorry that the author did not enter more minutely into an illustration and representation of some of the minor parts of the machine; such as the valves, cocks, pistons, &c.: for these, when introduced only according to their proper scale, in the general representation of the engine, become too small and indistinct to be easily followed by a person not already acquainted with the operations, and to whom the work is therefore of comparatively little value. It is true that, in one or two cases, these parts are exhibited on a larger scale: but we should have been glad to have seen these minutiæ farther developed; and, if less had been given of parliamentary matter connected with the subject, the volume might have been kept to the same size, while its interest would have been very considerably increased. As it is, however, it certainly contains much valuable and interesting information, and will be found highly instructive to that class of readers to whom we have above alluded.

We may consider this work as embracing the following distinct heads or sections: — A General Introduction; an Historical Account of the Steam-Engine; History and Description of Steam-Navigation; General Description of the Steam-Engine, illustrated by eight excellently executed Plates by Gladwin; and an Appendix, containing a Catalogue and concise Description of the various Patents that have been taken out for the Improvement of these Machines, with Abstracts from Acts of Parliament connected with the Subject of Steam-Engines and Steam-Navigation; the Proceedings of the Committee of Enquiry instituted in 1817 by a Vote of the House of Commons, &c, &c.

It appears from the Introduction that the number of steam-engines at present in action in this country may be reckoned at 10,000; that, one with another, each may be estimated as equal in power to twenty horses; that each horse will do the work of six men; and that, consequently, the acting powers of our steam-engines are equal in effect to 200,000 horses, or 1,200,000 men! If we contemplate this immense accession of strength, much of the wonder, that is naturally excited by comparing the magnitude of the external and the internal capability of Great Britain with its territorial superficies, will vanish; for it will be seen that, with a population of about 14,000,000, we are employing an active force that could not be obtained independently of these means with double the number. We ought farther to recollect that the power thus produced is more concentrated, and consequently more efficacious, than it could possibly be under other circumstances; not to repeat, what we have before stated, that the capacity of these machines becomes effective in various instances in which human strength could by no possibility be employed, as in draining mines and similar operations. Under this point of view, therefore, the steam-engine ought not to be considered merely in the light of an ingenious mechanical construction, but as a most gigantic national resource, claiming equally the attention of the philosopher and the political economist.

Mr. Partington's historical section, which is highly interesting, is subdivided into four chapters: the first relating to the early Discoveries and Inventions; viz. from about the middle of the seventeenth century to the year 1769, when Mr. Watt took out his patent for an improved steam-engine; the great feature of which consisted in condensing his steam in a separate vessel, which gave a fresh power to the machine, and will ever be considered as a grand epoch in mechanical science. The second chapter takes up the History from this period, and, in a concise and well connected series, points out all the principal Inventions and Improvements from that date to the present year. In the course of this chapter, while speaking of the manufactory of Messrs. Boulton and Watt at Soho, the author quotes some passages from the celebrated Dr. Darwin, who so frequently decorated the stern features of science with the beauties of poetry, to shew how this focus of mechanical construction, "big with promise" even in the year 1768, has since surpassed the most sanguine expectations that could then have been entertained of its future progress.

'"Soho is the name of a hill in the county of Stafford, about two miles from Birmingham, which a very few years ago was a barren heath, on the bleak summit of which stood a naked hut, the habitation of a warrener.

'"The transformation of this place is a recent monument of the effects of trade on population. A beautiful garden, with wood, lawn, and water, now covers one side of this hill; five spacious squares of building, erected on the other side, supply workshops or houses for about six hundred people. The extensive pool at the approach to this building is conveyed to a large water-wheel in one of the courts, and communicates motion to a prodigious number of different tools. The mechanical inventions for this purpose are superior in multitude, variety, and simplicity, to those of any manufactory in the known world.

'"Toys, and utensils of various kinds, in gold, silver, steel, copper, tortoise-shell, enamels, and many vitreous and metallic compositions, with gilded, plated, and inlaid works, are wrought up to the highest elegance of taste, and perfection of execution in this place.

'"Mr. Boulton, who has established this great work, has joined taste and philosophy with manufacture and commerce; and from the various branches of chemistry, and the numerous mechanic arts he employs, and his extensive correspondence to every corner of the world, is furnished with the highest entertainment, as well as the most lucrative employment."'

Such was Soho in 1768: but its appearance then bears no other similitude to its appearance now than that of infancy to maturity. It is now unquestionably the most important private establishment not only in England but in the world.

Chapter iii. treats of the early History and present State of Steam-navigation; in which the author unquestionably establishes the claim of the English to the honor of this noble invention. The first patent was taken out, as we have already stated, by Mr. Jonathan Hulls, in 1736; and in it, if we rightly understand the author, the crank was first employed for converting a reciprocating into a rotatory motion.

' It is probable that Mr. Hulls anticipated some objection to his new mode of propelling vessels, and it appears from Captain Savery's statement, that a strong prejudice had been raised against the use of propelling wheels in vessels. Mr. Secretary Trenchard, who was at that time at the head of the Admiralty, had also given a decided negative to the proposition. In answer therefore to the objections which might have been anticipated, Mr. Hulls proposed the following queries, which he afterwards solved in the most satisfactory way.

' " *Query* 1.—Is it possible to fix instruments of sufficient strength to move so prodigious a weight, as may be contained in a very large vessel?

' " *Query* 2.—Will not the force of the waves break any instrument to pieces that is placed to move in the water?

' " *Query* 3.—It being a continual expense to keep this machine at work, will the expense be answered?" '

Like many other ingenious projectors, however, Mr. Hulls had the mortification to find his arguments disregarded, and his noble proposition rejected, which has become the glory and boast of the nineteenth century.

From the following list of American steam-boats in action and building in America, some idea may be formed of the great progress of steam-navigation in that country; and from the recent Report of the Committee of the House of Commons, we are gratified to find that the advancement of the art in Great Britain is not less important.

Steam-Vessels in Operation in America.

	Tons.		Tons.
' Vesuvius	390	Exchange	200
Etna	390	Louisiana	54
Buffalo	300	James Ross	320
James Monroe	90	Frankfort	320
Washington	400	Tamerlane	320
Constitution	75	Cedar Branch	250
Harnot	40	Experiment	40
Kentucky	80	St. Louis	220
Governor Shelby	120	Vesta	100
Madison	200	Rifleman	250
Ohio	443	Alabama	200
Napoleon	332	Rising States	150
Volcano	250	General Pike	250
General Jackson	200	Independence	300
Eagle	70	Paragon	400
Hecla	70	Maysville	150
Henderson	85		
Johnston	80	Total	7259
Cincinnati	120		

'*Building.*

	Tons.
2 at Pittsburgh of 180 tons	360
2 at Wheeling, of 500 and 100	600
2 at Steubenville	90
1 at Marietta	130
1 at Maysville	110
2 at Cincinnati	720
2 at Cincinnati, 115 and 250,	365
2 at Newport	500
1 at Jeffersonville	700
1 at Portland (Kentucky)	300
3 at New Albany, each 220,	660
4 at Clarkesville	500
1 at Salt River	160
1 at Vevay	110
1 at Madison	120
1 at Rising Sun	90
1 on the Wabash	80
2 at New Orleans, each, 200,	400
Total	5995'

The fourth chapter is principally occupied with the Evidence taken before the Committee of the House of Commons on Steam-navigation, in consequence of the accident at Norwich in 1817. It is perhaps extended to a too great length, compared with the size of the volume.

Chapters v. and vi. are appropriated to a general description of the Steam-engine. In the former, the writer illustrates the peculiarities of the Cylinder and Piston Condenser; Air-pump; Barometer and Steam-gauge; Working Beam; Parallel Motion; Counter; Sun and Planet Wheel-fly, and other Modes of regulating Velocity; Boiler; Safety-Valve, and Furnace. We think that this chapter should have been farther elucidated by figures, the description without them being too general to be easily understood by persons who are unacquainted with machinery. — The sixth chapter treats of Savery's Engine as improved by Pontifex; the Atmospheric Engine; Single-acting Engine by Boulton and Watt; Murray's and Wood's Engine; High Pressure Engine; Woolf's Double Cylinder Expansion Engine; Maudslay's Portable Engine; Masterman's Rotatory Engine; Smoke-consuming Furnaces, &c.: illustrated by appropriate and very neatly executed plates, and certainly containing much valuable and popular information on the subject. The Appendix furnishes a long list of Patents for Steam-engines, with an Analytical Account of those that are more immediately connected with its Improvement and general Application to the useful Arts.

Altogether, though we cannot but deem this work a little deficient in some of the minor points to which we have alluded, yet its general character is highly respectable; much of the information afforded by it is both novel and interesting; and we have no doubt that it will be well received by the public.

Art. VIII. *The Flood of Thessaly*, the Girl of Provence, and other Poems. By Barry Cornwall. 8vo. 9*s*. 6*d*. Boards. Colburn and Co. 1823.

It appears from the advertisement prefixed to 'The Flood of Thessaly,' that Mr. Barry Cornwall (as he still chuses to call himself) had originally 'an intention of publishing a more elaborate poem on that subject.' In abandoning so rash a design, we think that he has exercised a very sound discretion; — for, if instead of seventy-two pages 'The Flood' had overspred seven hundred and twenty, and if its two humble 'parts' had swelled into twelve corpulent 'books,' we are persuaded that the number of its readers would have diminished in an exact ratio with the increased bulk of the poem. In its present shape it is a mere *scintilla* of an epic, and needs not terrify even the most languid summer-reader. The poet would in fact be most unreasonable, who at the present day should publish an epic with any expectation of its being read. If at an overloaded board, where the most highly-seasoned dishes are served up by Byron, and the richest sweets and most exquisite trifles by Moore, and even the hashes are concocted by such men as Rogers, Mr. Barry Cornwall were to place his round of beef on the table with any hope of seeing it devoured, he would undoubtedly expose himself to disappointment. So many dishes are offered to us, and so many delicacies are to be tasted, that it is absolutely impossible for any one to make a meal on such solid food.

Abandoning all "figure of speech," the state of society is now such as really to repress the higher and more laborious attempts of the muse. A certain degree of acquaintance with the floating literature of the day, though it often floats not long, is considered as essential to every one who lives in the world, or who would not be mistaken for a hermit; and it is therefore of course highly expedient that such knowlege should be acquired at the least possible expence of time and trouble. An epic, however, in twelve or in twenty books, cannot be read as the chambermaid threatened to read Shakspeare, "some wet afternoon:" the perusal of it is a matter of grave consideration; we calculate how our time is to be employed for the next week; we count over our engagements; and if, after all, we find a sufficiency of leisure on our hands, we sit down to the volume with a sentiment of determined industry rather than of recreation. Before a poem of surpassing excellence, all such feelings will necessarily vanish: but where in these days may we look for a transcendant epic?

In what manner Mr. C. could have elaborated a long poem on the subject of the Flood of Thessaly, we are rather at a loss to divine: but, in the present fragment, he has proceeded so far as to drown all the world except Deucalion and Pyrrha, whom he saves after considerable exertions. The ceremony of casting the stones over their left shoulder is likewise most successfully performed at the conclusion of the second part; by which, according to our apprehension, the tale of the Flood is completed. We could have wished that the author had selected a subject, we will not say less *dry*, lest our readers should accuse us of "paltering with them in a double sense," but at all events less trite than this diluvian story; for, after having been so lately overwhelmed with Lord Byron's flood, to be immersed in that of Mr. Barry Cornwall is scarcely less than cruel. We shall, however, boldly plunge into the poem; and, as there are but two books of it, we doubt not that our readers will be able to wade with us through it. In the first place, we extract the poet's description of his hero and heroine:

'Pyrrha and young Deucalion! — fair names
As ever shone in fable or old song,
Tradition or recording history:
In green youth were they lovers, tho' scarce known
The bud which after blossom'd into love;
Still lovers, tho' now wedded with consent
Of their own gentle hearts, before the face
Of all the stars that crowd the summer sky.
How beautiful they were may not be told;
Yet both were beautiful, and one so fair
That when her glossy ringlets downwards fell,
Serpenting o'er her shoulders smooth and white
As marble, (such the Parians wrought) she seemed
A happy Dryad from the woods escaped,
Or Naiad who had left her watery cave
Content to dwell with man: — Deucalion trod
The green earth as the feathered herald trod,
(Jove's son and starry Maia's, — always young,)
And round about his temples the black curls
Hung thick, and clustering left his forehead bare.
His eye was like the eagle's, wild and keen,
And his mouth parted but to speak of love:
Not huge, yet giant-sprung, his towering youth
Rose into manhood, like a Titan born.'

The poem is certainly worked up with considerable energy and effect; though some of the most powerful portions of it are evidently borrowed from that dreadful picture of super-human suffering, to which Lord Byron has given the name of "Darkness."

'Still fell the flooding rains. Still the Earth shrank:
And Ruin held his strait terrific way.

Fierce

Fierce lightnings burnt the sky, and the loud thunder
(Beast of the fiery air) howled from his cloud,
Exulting, towards the storm-eclipsed moon.
Below, the ocean rose boiling and black,
And flung its monstrous billows far and wide
Crumbling the mountain-joints and summit-hills;
Then its dark throat it bared and rocky tusks,
Where, with enormous waves on their broad backs,
The demons of the deep were raging loud;
And racked to hideous mirth or bitter scorn
Hissed the sea-angels; and earth-buried broods
Of giants in their chains tossed to and fro,
And the sea-lion and the whale were swung
Like atoms round and round. —
Mankind was dead:
And birds whose active wings once cut the air,
And beasts that spurned the waters, — all were dead:
And every reptile of the woods had died
Which crawled or stung, and every curling worm: —
The untamed tiger in his den, the mole
In his dark home — were choaked: the darting ounce
And the blind adder and the stork fell down
Dead, and the stifled mammoth, a vast bulk,
Was washed far out amongst the populous foam:
And there the serpent, which few hours ago
Could crack the panther in his scaly arms,
Lay lifeless, like a weed, beside his prey.
And now, all o'er the deeps corpses were strewn,
Wide-floating millions, like the rubbish flung
Forth when a plague prevails; the rest down-sucked,
Sank, buried in the world-destroying seas. ——
‘ Confusion raged and ruled. At last, up-grew
A mingling of earth, sea, and heaven and air;
All one they looked, impenetrable, black
As chaos, when the salient atoms flew
Around the abyss and made all space a hell.
Nature lay drowned and dead. Fens, moors, and bogs,
And pleasant vallies and aspiring hills,
Rivers and trees were lost, mountains and lakes:
Even heaven eternal, whom no cloud before
Utterly barred, thro' its serene domain
Kept captive all the gods and lucid stars,
Mercurius and Apollo and the rest;
And hid their beauty from the fainting world.
— A mass like the great ocean when all winds
Blow and lay bare its hollows, and shake forth
The century-sleeping sands, until the foam
Grows thick and dark, rolled over sea and land, —
A perilous mass of floods, fierce as the north
In March, when scything blasts strip all the bones,
And loud as when the riven air proclaims
Earthquakes at Hecla, or once bright Peru.'

As we apprehend that our readers are tolerably well versed in the fable of this poem, we shall not favor them with any parts of the solemn ceremony described by the author, or of Deucalion's historical dream. At last, however,

> ——' He awoke : —
> And o'er him, gently bending, children hung,
> (He their creator) and a new-born world
> Opened upon his sense, — a paradise
> Of flowers and fruits, sweet winds and cloudless skies,
> And azure-waters winding to the main,
> And forest-walks, and (far off) sounds which break
> The sun-set silence, and the songs of birds
> Chanting melodious mirth : — vernal delights
> Haunted the air, and youth which knew no pang
> Ran through all living veins, and touched all eyes
> With beauty : — the tall branches waved their plumes ;
> The water trembled ; and the amorous sun
> Came darting from his orb : Eagles and doves,
> Paired in the ether, and the branching stag
> Fled from his shadow on the grass-green plain. —
> O golden hours ! O world ! now stained with crime,
> Immaculate then, methinks thy perfect fame
> Should live in song ! Methinks some bard, whose heart
> Traces its courage to Promethean veins,
> Should build in lasting verse, firmer than mine,
> Deucalion's story, — (upon Delphi's steep
> Saved from the watery waste,) and Pyrrha's woe.'

'The Girl of Provence' is a singular poem, founded on the story of a young French girl who is said to have been smitten with love of the Belvidere Apollo, and to have died distracted. On this theme the writer has suffered his imagination to run riot, like that of the girl herself; and, the "fine phrenzy" adding to the madness of the young lady, and her passion of mixing up Apollo the god, Apollo the sun, and Apollo the statue, and introducing them all in a sort of vision or dream, he has completely succeeded in perplexing the faculties of the reader. Percy Shelley himself was never more mysterious. Can any one conjecture the meaning of the three following stanzas?

> ' Apollo ! king Apollo ! — Is thy scorn
> Not dead, — and were Cassandra's tears in vain ?
> Her words (an oracle) — her life forlorn,
> Stung through by unbelief and fierce disdain ? —
> Her crowned exile and her death of pain ? —
> Still dost thou ask new love and fresh despair,
> And hopes born but to perish ? — Spare ! O spare !
> speak in vain : — the chariot of the hour
> Is rolling onwards, — over kings and slaves,
> *Passionate spirits, and the* crimson flower

Of love, which Hermes' magic never saves, —
Over rebellions and the gloom of graves, —
Through light and darkness, and the eternal woe
Of life, — to regions which no thought may know.
'Older than ruin, or the dust that hides
Persepolis or Balbec, and yet fair
Like early manhood, the great phantom rides
(Time or the hour) above us: — where, O where? —
Through hell, and heaven, in earth, and the wide air;
Invisibly he goes, and without sound,
Like death, a tyrant, — shapeless but uncrowned.'

In the exercise of his poetical licence, Mr. Barry Cornwall seems inclined in one or two instances to be rather licentious in his poetry. The decent compositor, however, has discreetly omitted three lines and a half in stanza xxxvii., and has wisely inserted a competent quantity of stars: but if the same expurgatory judgment had been exercised on some other parts of the poem, it would have redounded more to Mr. C.'s credit. Is the nature of his muse so strictly imitative, that he must perforce copy even the faults of erring genius? Had he never read Lord Byron's voluptuous verses, we should not now have been compelled to make this slight animadversion on the freedom of his pen: but in versification, and indeed in the whole style of the composition, this poem is entirely *Byronesque*. — 'The Genealogists,' one of the last poems in the volume, is in the Beppo style, and Mr. C., in the dedication prefixed to it, gives it the title of mirthful. We can assure him, however, that the perusal of it was to us a most serious affair. To produce a poem of this kind, with any real pretensions to excellence, requires a very peculiar and exquisite genius.

The 'Vision of the Fall of Saturn,' and 'Tartarus, a Sketch,' though both containing fine poetry, we confess to be grievously unintelligible to us; being both full of visions, and dreams, and shadows, and more than German mysticism. What can we expect after so portentous a commencement as the following?

'I dream — I dream — I dream
Of shadow and light — of pleasure and pain,
Of heaven — of hell. — And visions seem
Streaming for ever athwart my brain.' !!!

If any one of our readers can fathom the depths of these wild compositions, he must be (to use Mr. C.'s own words)

'Mad as the poet is whose fancies flee
Up to the stars.' —

'The Letter of Boccaccio' is founded on an episode introduced by Madame Genlis into her novel of *Petrarch and*
Laura;

Laura; though, if our memory serves us, the poet has omitted the catastrophe of the novelist's tale. — From this, which in our opinion is the most pleasing poem in the volume, we give a few of the concluding stanzas:

> ‘ Farewell! — Ever the same, thy friend, thy lover,
> Boccaccio liveth. Though the wide world over
> Fate shall exile him, yet no change shall bend
> His courage, or resolving firmly taken:
> But, though by every friend and hope forsaken,
> Still shall Boccaccio be thy hope, thy friend.
>
> ‘ Thy home lies far away: but every feature
> Of thy soft beauty, thou imperial creature,
> Within my heart of hearts will I retain:
> Thy fortunes and mine own are far divided;
> Thine to a throned chair, by duty guided,
> Shines fair — Away, unto the sunny Spain!
>
> ‘ Perhaps, with somewhat of my old emotion,
> My eye may glance at times across the ocean,
> And through the cloud-fed billows when they flee
> To heav'n, and through the phantom-peopled ether,
> I may behold thee still, — wandering hither
> An exile from thy olive-shores, — to me.
>
> ‘ And *should* I see thee on the amorous waters
> Treading with white feet bare, as once the daughters
> Of wing'd magicians could by some fine spell,
> I'll clasp thee, beauty of the world! — though madness
> Rain down, or dazzling death, or endless sadness
> Cling like remorse to me. — Farewell, farewell!' —

Some miscellaneous compositions follow. — Many of the little peculiarities, which we have noticed in this writer's former publications, are observable in the present volume. It likewise betrays the same absence of a simple and unsophisticated style, and the same occasional extravagance of figure; as, for instance, calling thunder a ‘beast of the fiery air.’ Our readers will perhaps recollect another of Mr. C.'s comparisons, which we had occasion to point out to them; viz. that of the ocean to a beast which had fallen from the sky. We could mention a hundred other proofs of affectation: but the task is an invidious one, and, after all, they cannot obscure the gleams of a truly poetic spirit.

Art. IX. *Table-Talk;* or, Original Essays. By W. Hazlitt. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1*l*. 8*s*. Boards. Warren, and Colburn and Co.

We do not think that this work is well described in its first title, for it has no where the character of conversation. Neither ease nor variety, nor trifling, can be said to constitute its charm; nor does it occasionally break loose into dialogue, and push contending weights of argument into the scales of contention. It is rather a series of soliloquies, admirably declaimed, but declaimed for admiration; — a set of florid speeches, which, without affecting the formality of a lecture, are still made to be overheard. The author thinks aloud, and expresses his thoughts with the anxious elegance of one who has an accomplished audience, but never seems to expect either the objections of a disputant or the accompaniment of sympathy. His essays are meditations, rhapsodies, harangues, any thing but chit-chat, any thing but 'Table-Talk.' Still a bottle with a false label may contain good wine; and a mis-directed letter may convey pleasing information.

The essays in these volumes are far too numerous for us to give them each a distinct notice, but we shall advert to a few in each.

The first and second papers in vol. i. treat of the pleasure of Painting, an art which the author once intended to practise, but which he has since preferred merely to criticize. In theory, he is hostile to a negligent facility, and advocates the slow patient laborious execution of Correggio, da Vinci, and del Sarto. This is a word said at the right time and place; for certainly English artists are usually deficient in point of industry. Small cabinet-pictures, to be hung up within reach of a level eye, form the most welcome furniture for the walls of a modern apartment: but, in order to obtain such, recourse must be had to the Flemish school. Most of our native artists daub like scene-painters, and then complain that nobody is willing to buy their productions, to be hung up in rooms that are too small for distant effect.

In the two succeeding essays, Mr. H. compares genius with common sense; by which last phrase he appears to mean a *tact* arising from experience, which has not learnt to convey its grounds of inference by words. This is not exactly the *sensus communis* of the Latins, which rather designates the average feeling, the sentiment common to the greatest number of men, the general will, the public mind. If there be something desultory and unprecise in this dissertation, it still contains many original criticisms; and among others one on the author's own style, which we shall transcribe as being just.

'It is rather an odd objection to a work that it is made up entirely of "brilliant passages" — at least it is a fault that can be found with few works, and the book might be pardoned for its singularity. The censure might indeed seem like adroit flattery, if it were not passed on an author whom any objection is sufficient to render unpopular and ridiculous. I grant it is best to unite solidity with show, general information with particular ingenuity.

This is the pattern of a perfect style: but I myself do not pretend to be a perfect writer. In fine, we do not banish light French wines from our tables, or refuse to taste sparkling Champagne when we can get it, because it has not the body of Old Port. Besides, I do not know that dulness is strength, or that an observation is slight because it is striking. Mediocrity, insipidity, want of character, is the great fault. *Mediocribus esse poetis non Dii, non homines, non concessére columnæ.* Neither is this privilege allowed to prose-writers in our time, any more than to poets formerly.'

Mr. Hazlitt, however, must allow us to believe that though an odd it is a sound objection to a piece of writing, that it is made up entirely of brilliant passages. Variety is necessary to pleasure; and where no intervals of simple writing occur, the stimulant sentences enfeeble one another, and exhaust the reader. Attention may "die of a rose in aromatic pain;" and if embroidery be not executed on a plain instead of a figured ground, the more elaborate pattern becomes indistinct. An antithesis may be biting, a metaphor picturesque, an allusion appropriate, an epithet apt, and yet a salmagundi of figures of rhetoric is only fit for a *hors d'œuvre*, not for a main dish.— We have also a still weightier ground of discontent respecting this author: there is a want of method, of purpose, and of cohesion in his *matter:* he begins without knowing whither he is going: after having ranged about for some time very pleasantly, he sits down to rest; and the reader feels inclined, like the mathematician, to ask "what does this prove?" It is not enough to chuse a topic, and write "about it and about it;" there should be drift, intention, end, and aim. "The Rambler" has an object for every stroll; the present author should be termed *The Saunterer.*

The eighth essay treats on the ignorance of the learned; and appears to us one of the happiest in expression, though much exception may be made to its sweeping denunciations.

'Learning is, in too many cases, but a foil to common sense; a substitute for true knowledge. Books are less often made use of as "spectacles" to look at nature with, than as blinds to keep out its strong light and shifting scenery from weak eyes and indolent dispositions. The book-worm wraps himself up in his web of verbal generalities, and sees only the glimmering shadows of things reflected from the minds of others. Nature *puts him out.* The impressions of real objects, stripped of the disguises of words and voluminous round-about descriptions, are blows that stagger him; their variety distracts, their rapidity exhausts him; and he turns from the bustle, the noise, and glare, and whirling motion of the world about him, (which he has not an eye to follow in its fantastic changes, nor an understanding to reduce to fixed principles,) to the quiet monotony of the dead languages, and the less startling and more intelligible combinations of the letters of the alphabet. It is well, it is perfectly well. " Leave me to my repose," is the motto of the sleeping and the dead. You might as well ask the paralytic to leap from his chair and throw away his crutch, or, without a miracle, to " take up his bed and walk," as expect the learned reader to throw down his book and think for himself. He clings to it for his intellectual support; and his dread of being left to himself is like the horror of a vacuum. He can only breathe a learned atmosphere, as other men breathe common air. He is a borrower of sense. He has no ideas of his own, and must live on those of other people. The habit of supplying our ideas from foreign sources " enfeebles all internal strength of thought," as a course of dram-drinking destroys the tone of the stomach. The faculties of the mind, when not exerted, or when cramped by custom and authority, become listless, torpid, and unfit for the purposes of thought or action. Can we wonder at the languor and lassitude which is thus produced by a life of learned sloth and ignorance; by poring over lines and syllables that excite little more idea or interest than if they were the characters of an unknown tongue, till the eye closes on vacancy, and the book drops from the feeble hand! I would rather be a wood-cutter, or the meanest hind, that all day " sweats in the eye of Phœbus, and at night sleeps in Elysium," than wear out my life so, 'twixt dreaming and awake. The learned author differs from the learned student in this, that the one transcribes what the other reads, The learned are mere literary drudges. If you set them upon original composition, their heads turn, they don't know where they are. The indefatigable readers of books are like the everlasting copiers of pictures, who, when they attempt to do any thing of their own, find they want an eye quick enough, a hand steady enough, and colours bright enough, to trace the living forms of nature.—

' An idler at school, on the other hand, is one who has high health and spirits, who has the free use of his limbs, with all his wits about him, who feels the circulation of his blood and the motion of his heart, who is ready to laugh and cry in a breath, and who had rather chase a ball or a butterfly, feel the open air in his face, look at the fields or the sky, follow a winding path, or enter with eagerness into all the little conflicts and interests of his acquaintances and friends, than doze over a musty spelling-book, repeat barbarous distichs after his master, sit so many hours pinioned to a writing-desk, and receive his reward for the loss of time and pleasure in paltry prize-medals at Christmas and Midsummer. There is indeed a degree of stupidity which prevents children from learning the usual lessons, or ever arriving at these puny academic honours. But what passes for stupidity is much oftener a want of interest, of a sufficient motive to fix the attention, and force a reluctant application to the dry and unmeaning pursuits of school-learning. The best capacities are as much above this drudgery, as the dullest are beneath it. Our men of the greatest genius have not been most distinguished for their acquirements at school or at the university.

> " Th' enthusiast fancy was a truant ever."

'Gray and Collins were among the instances of this wayward disposition. Such persons do not think so highly of the advantages, nor can they submit their imaginations so servilely to the trammels of strict scholastic discipline. There is a certain kind and degree of intellect in which words take root, but into which things have not power to penetrate. A mediocrity of talent, with a certain slenderness of moral constitution, is the soil that produces the most brilliant specimens of successful prize-essayists and Greek epigrammatists. It should not be forgotten, that the least respectable character among modern politicians was the cleverest boy at Eton.

'Learning is the knowledge of that which is not generally known to others, and which we can only derive at second-hand from books or other artificial sources. The knowledge of that which is before us, or about us, which appeals to our experience, passions, and pursuits, to the bosoms and businesses of men, is not learning. Learning is the knowledge of that which none but the learned know. He is the most learned man who knows the most of what is farthest removed from common life and actual observation, that is of the least practical utility, and least liable to be brought to the test of experience, and that, having been handed down through the greatest number of intermediate stages, is the most full of uncertainty, difficulties, and contradictions. It is seeing with the eyes of others, hearing with their ears, and pinning our faith on their understandings. The learned man prides himself in the knowledge of names, and dates, not of men or things. He thinks and cares nothing about his next-door neighbours, but he is deeply read in the tribes and casts of the Hindoos and Calmuc Tartars. He can hardly find his way into the next street, though he is acquainted with the exact dimensions of Constantinople and Pekin. He does not know whether his oldest acquaintance is a knave or a fool, but he can pronounce a pompous lecture on all the principal characters in history. He cannot tell whether an object is black or white, round or square, and yet he is a professed master of the laws of optics and the rules of perspective. He knows as much of what he talks about, as a blind man does of colours. He cannot give a satisfactory answer to the plainest question, nor is he ever in the right in any one of his opinions, upon any one matter of fact that really comes before him, and yet he gives himself out for an infallible judge on all those points, of which it is impossible that he or any other person living should know any thing but by conjecture. He is expert in all the dead and in most of the living languages; but he can neither speak his own fluently, nor write it correctly. A person of this class, the second Greek scholar of his day, undertook to point out several solecisms in Milton's Latin style; and in his own performance there is hardly a sentence of common English. Such was Dr. ——. *Such is Dr.* ——. Such was not Porson. He was an exception that confirmed the general rule, — a man that, by uniting talents and knowledge with learning, made the distinction between them more striking and palpable.'

This writing is much in the style of Bishop Hall's and of Butler's characters, and rivals them in perpetual ingenuity of eloquence. A British Theophrastus, composed in this vein by Mr. Hazlitt, would be an amusing and a lasting monument of our national literature: but his anathemas against learning will be relished only by the unlearned.

In the Second Volume, the essay on Criticism drew our attention; for, if we attempt to teach, we are also willing to learn. When, however, Mr. Hazlitt contrasts the antient and modern ways of reviewing to the advantage of the latter, we demur to his verdict. Formerly, all Reviews were addressed to readers, to individuals, or to book-clubs, who wanted to see a sample and to learn the value of what they were meditating to buy; and for this purpose a proem, which displayed the Reviewer's competency to judge, an analysis of the principal contents of a work, a specimen of some characteristic passages, and a final precise estimate, constituted the proper form of annunciation. In the present day, many Reviews are addressed only to talkers; and their object is rather to supply brilliant conversation about books which it is never intended to peruse, than to indicate their substance or their value, and to display the Reviewer's knowlege on the *subject* of a book which he himself has never read. For this purpose, splendid originalities concerning the topic under contemplation, and exaggerated praise or blame, — if any thing be in fact said about the work that is announced, — glaringly stained with the tints of party, are best adapted. The old Reviewer was candid and indifferent, and kept his task in view; the new Reviewer is sarcastic and partial, and keeps only his topic in view. Authors, surely, are not gainers by the change, for their importance is now made subordinate to the display of their critics.

The essay on Familiar Style begins as if intended for an example of the object in discussion, but in its progress declines towards the author's habitual manner; which abounds excessively with quaint archaisms, and iterations concealed by varieties of expression. Mr. Lamb seems to be a favorite with the author, and has certainly contributed to tincture his style of composition.

We shall make an extract from a somewhat paradoxical paper on the Disadvantages of Intellectual Superiority.

'Intellectual is not like bodily strength. You have no hold of the understanding of others but by their sympathy. Your knowing,

ing, in fact, so much more about a subject does not give you a superiority, that is, a power over them, but only renders it the more impossible for you to make the least impression on them. Is it then an advantage to you? It may be, as it relates to your own private satisfaction, but it places a greater gulf between you and society. It throws stumbling blocks in your way at every turn. All that you take most pride and pleasure in is lost upon the vulgar eye. What they are pleased with is a matter of indifference or of distate to you. In seeing a number of persons turn over a portfolio of prints from different masters, what a trial it is to the patience, how it jars the nerves, to hear them fall into raptures at some common-place flimsy thing, and pass over some divine expression of countenance without notice, or with a remark that it is very singular-looking? How useless is it in such cases to fret or argue, or remonstrate? Is it not quite as well to be without all this hypercritical, fastidious knowledge, and to be pleased or displeased as it happens, or struck with the first fault or beauty that is pointed out by others? I would be glad almost to change my acquaintance with pictures, with books, and, certainly, what I know of mankind, for any body's ignorance of them!

' It is recorded in the life of some worthy (whose name I forget) that he was one of those "who loved hospitality and respect:" and I profess to belong to the same classification of mankind. Civility is with me a jewel. I like a little comfortable cheer, and careless, indolent, chat. I hate to be always wise, or aiming at wisdom. I have enough to do with literary cabals, questions, critics, actors, essay-writing, without taking them out with me for recreation, and into all companies. I wish at these times to pass for a good-humoured fellow; and good-will is all I ask in return to make good company. I do not desire to be always posing myself or others with the questions of fate, free-will, foreknowledge absolute, &c. I must unbend sometimes. I must occasionally lie fallow. The kind of conversation that I affect most is what sort of a day it is, and whether it is likely to rain or hold up fine for to-morrow. This I consider as enjoying the *otium cum dignitate*, as the end and privilege of a life of study. I would resign myself to this state of easy indifference, but I find I cannot. I must maintain a certain pretension, which is far enough from my wish. I must be put on my defence, I must take up the gauntlet continually, or I find I lose ground. "I am nothing, if not critical." While I am thinking what o'clock it is, or how I came to blunder in quoting a well-known passage, as if I had done it on purpose, others are thinking whether I am not really as dull a fellow as I am sometimes said to be. If a drizzling shower patters against the windows, it puts me in mind of a mild spring rain, from which I retired twenty years ago, into a little public house near Wem in Shropshire, and while I saw the plants and shrubs before the door imbibe the dewy moisture, quaffed a glass of sparkling ale, and walked home in the dusk of evening, brighter to me than noonday suns at present are! Would I indulge this feeling? In vain. They ask me what news there is, and stare if I say I don't know. If a new actress has come out, why must I have seen her? If a new novel has appeared, why must I have read it? I, at one time, used to go and take a hand at cribbage with a friend, and afterwards discuss a cold sirloin of beef, and throw out a few lack-a-daisical remarks, in a way to please myself, but it would not do long. I set up little pretension, and therefore the little that I did set up was taken from me. As I said nothing on that subject, myself, it was continually thrown in my teeth that I was *an author*. From having me at this disadvantage, my friend wanted to peg on a hole or two in the game, and was displeased if I would not let him. If I won of him, it was hard he should be beat by an author. If he won, it would be strange if he did not understand the game better than I did. If I mentioned my favourite game of rackets, there was a general silence, as if this was my weak point. If I complained of being ill, it was asked why I made myself so? If I said such an actor had played a part well, the answer was, There was a different account in one of the newspapers. If any allusion was made to men of letters, there was a suppressed smile. If I told a humorous story, it was difficult to say whether the laugh was at me or at the narrative. The wife hated me for my ugly face; the servants because I could not always get them tickets for the play, and because they could not tell exactly what an author meant. If a paragraph appeared against any thing I had written, I found it was ready there before me, and I was to undergo a regular *roasting*. I submitted to all this till I was tired, and then I gave it up.'

Here the writer displays much humor and vivacity. The papers in general, however, are too long, and without a definite aim; and they amuse rather by a glittering garrulity, a variety of allusion, a command of trope, and a versatility of expression, than by the frequent attempts to keep up in new gyres the shuttle-cock of tautology. Scattered at random among writing more natural, each of these essays would be admired in a periodical miscellany, where some of them have actually appeared: but the sameness of resource as to diction renders their juxta-position less favorable to satisfactory effect.

Art. X. *Letters from Mecklenburg and Holstein;* comprizing an Account of the Free Cities of Hamburg and Lubeck. Written in the Summer of 1820. By George Downes, A. B. 8vo. pp. 350. 10*s*. 6*d*. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1822.

The author of this agreeable and instructive volume is a native of Ireland, and a graduate of Trinity-College in Dublin. Being considered as in danger of pulmonary consumption, a sea-voyage and a change of air were recommended by his medical advisers; and having relations settled at Lubeck, he determined on travelling in that direction. In consequence, he here narrates the particulars of a journey which occupied the summer of 1820, included the cities of Hamburg and Lubeck, and embraced the contiguous provinces of Mecklenburg and Holstein. The work is drawn up in the form of letters, but contains some historical and antiquarian dissertations which must have been composed at leisure, and with the assistance of books. Much of the text, however, bears internal evidence of having been written on the spot, and paints unusual realities with the freshness of feeling and the precision of ocular testimony. Scraps of original poetry also vary and enliven the diction.

Mr. Downes embarked at Hull, and sketches in his first letter the entrance of the Elbe, Newark, Cuxhaven, Gluckstadt, Stade, Blankanese, and the approach to Altona and Hamburg. The custom-house regulations there have not the inhospitality of our own, and the traveller's trunk of clothes is landed unsearched and unredeemed. — A second letter describes the Danish village of Lockstedt; a pleasant spot, where the author took lodgings, and whence he made many excursions through the Alster villages. — Stelling, Eppendorf, Winterhude, and Eimsbuttel, are next described; and then comes a visit to Klopstock's grave at Ottensen, with corrections of the epitaph, which has repeatedly been misprinted, but which is not eminently beautiful and striking.

‘ Altona has ever been remarkable for religious toleration. In 1601 — on an application made by the Count of Manssfeld to Count Ernest of Pinneberg — the Catholics, who had emigrated from Hamburg, obtained the privilege of a free exercise of their religion; and, in 1602, a rich merchant from Florence, Alexander de la Roxa, built — in conjunction with some merchants of Antwerp — a chapel for persons of the Romish persuasion. The Portuguese Jews established themselves here in 1611, — and the reception which they experienced encouraged their High German and Polish brethren to remove hither also. In 1612, there was at Altona a Walloon congregation of French Reformers, from the Low Countries; and the Mennonites — who became settled at Hamburg in 1630 — obtained, in 1634, the free exercise of their religion at Altona. But, what is more remarkable, the Jews have here actually attained the rights of citizenship — a phenomenon which furnishes a practical answer to the question of the poet: —

> Tribes of the wandering foot and weary breast,
> How shall ye flee away and be at rest! LORD BYRON.

Indeed, the extent of the religious toleration which prevails at Altona may be well attested by an enumeration of the different places of worship, which are as follows: — An evangelical Lutheran church; that of the Holy Ghost, also Lutheran; a German Reformed church; a French Reformed church; a Roman Catholic

lic chapel; a meeting-house for Mennonites; another for Moravians; a synagogue for the Jews in general; and another for Portuguese Jews, to which a school is attached. Of these buildings the first is the most conspicuous. It stands in the centre of the town, and has a very lofty spire.'

The road from Hamburg to Lubeck now passes in review; which latter city the author reaches in the evening.

'I was much struck,' he says, 'with the appearance of the Holstein gate. Surmounted by two frowning towers, and curiously embellished with antique sculptures of scowling warriors, it retains all that feudal sternness which characterizes the architectural remains of the dark ages in this country. — After establishing my travelling companions at the inn, I sallied forth, determined, notwithstanding the lateness of the hour, to explore some part of the town. Nothing can to a foreigner be more impressive than a walk in the dusk through Lubeck. The antique air of the houses, the desolation of the streets, the lofty trees which overshadow the church-yards, and the more lofty spires which rise above them, thrill almost to shuddering.'

The more remarkable monuments of antiquity are afterward described individually, with the same adapted picturesque colouring; such as the Dome-church, the Hospital for Cripples, the Rampart, the Marien-kirche, the Town-house, the Stift St. Johannis, the Jerusalemsberg, and Arnim's Monument.

Mr. D. quitted Lubeck to visit a German nobleman at Hulseberg, and viewed on his road the town and lake of Ratzeburg.

'In the immediate vicinity of Ratzeburg the road entered a grove of young beeches, through which we obtained partial glimpses of the lake (still considerably below us), with its fringe of trees and verdant borders. At length the town itself burst upon us — situated upon an island extending far across the water, and joined by two bridges to the opposite shores. Never did I behold a more striking — a more beautiful prospect! It was indeed a "delightfull land of Faery" — one of those pieces of harmonious landscape, in which the constituent parts are so accurately counterpoised (or rather so intimately blended together) as to render the impression on the mind essentially individual, and to baffle almost every attempt at detailed description. A charming writer, the Baron de la Motte Fouqué, appears to have had this or some similar region present to his imagination, while describing the retreat of his "*liebes Bildchen*" — Undine. "The green bank whereon his cottage was built extended far into a great lake, and it seemed as if the tongue of land had forced its way into it through love for the clear blue, pellucid waves, and that the water had with enamoured arms endeavoured to embrace the sweet green sward, its high-waving grass and flowers, and the refreshing *shadows* of its trees."'

A visit is made to the grave of Charles Theodore Koerner, who is idolized throughout Germany for his poetry, his love of liberty, his military courage, and his eventual self-immolation in the war of 1813: when he inrolled himself among Lutzow's volunteers, and assisted to reconquer a degree of independence for Prussia, which was intended to be the harbinger of constitutional freedom. An engraving is inserted of Koerner's monument, which stands at the foot of a fine oak.

The palace of the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin is described in great detail, and a list is given of its valuable collection of pictures. A manufactory of pasteboard statues is conducted in the ducal residence, which may deserve imitation in London:

'My next visit was to the pasteboard manufactory, which is under the superintendence of Mr. L——, the artist, whose polite attention to me I cannot forget. I was much surprised at finding several admirable imitations of bronze and marble — wrought of mere paper. Among these were the usual subjects of the statuary, — such as the gladiator, the busts of Homer, Virgil, &c. — all executed in full size. I lifted a Medicean Venus, which seemed scarcely a pound in weight. There were also many trivial objects, such as vases, flower-pots, cattle, &c. — in their proper colours. Germany is indebted to the father of the reigning Grand Duke for the introduction of this curious manufacture. While at Paris — about forty years since — he was so much struck with some mouldings of picture-frames, wrought of this material, that he made himself master of the art; upon which he possessed ingenuity sufficient to improve, and the application of which he extended so far that he may almost rank as the inventor. The mode of conducting the process is kept a profound secret. I purchased for two shillings what is ridiculously termed a bust of Christ, which I shall bring to Ireland — unless I meet with some revenue officer on the way scientific enough to deprive me of it.'

The demonology and superstitions of Mecklenburg are expounded with poetic curiosity, and a sketch is given of the history of the province; whence the author returns to Lubeck, and to Hamburg, where again his fourteenth letter is dated.

A tour in Holstein follows, which occupies eleven letters more. The villages, the monuments of Gothic antiquity, and the manners of the peasantry, are well pourtrayed. Kiel is one of the more important places visited. Concerning the canal which unites the Baltic with the German ocean, these particulars are given:

'Having departed from the flower-gardens, we embarked in a boat, and sailed up the canal as far as the first lock; which was to me of a quite novel construction. Midway between and parallel to the banks, is an oblong stone pier, joined to the one by a wooden drawbridge, to the other by a bridge of stone. There are consequently a double number of floodgates. While the boat was passing the lock, we withdrew to a neighbouring house of entertainment, where we sat in the open air enjoying the prospect; the beauty of which, after we resumed our navigation, was much heightened. The canal — worthy to be a river — meandering along the uplands of the Countess Baudissinn's estate on the Sleswig side, and the opposite cultivated heights and lowlands of Holstein — revealed, at every bend of its winding course, some unexpected and fascinating scene illumined by a constant sunshine.

'The plan of uniting the Baltic to the German Ocean originated with Count Schimmelmann, and was executed under the direction of Major-General Wegener. The canal was begun in 1777, and finished in 1784, at an expense of two millions and a half of dollars. Commencing at Holtenau, which is scarcely two miles from Kiel, it traverses the Lake of Flemhude, — and meets the Eyder at Rendsburg — a distance of five German miles.

'After sailing about a mile, we forsook our Scandinavian gondola, and ascended a steep path overhung with "*Heldenbuchen und Bardeneichen*" [" hero-beeches and bard-oaks"] of Knoop — as they are termed by the Baroness Von Hohenhausen. You will best conceive the character of the landscape, when I tell you that it partook of the features both of the Dargle and the Vale of Ovoca, county of Wicklow — a resemblance which awoke within me a train of melancholy associations, connected with these familiar but now distant scenes. At the next lock we met the high road from Kiel, which communicates with the demesne by a drawbridge. Here we had a view of the house; which is supported on four columns of the antique Ionic order, and built altogether in the Italian style. Having passed a very fine pond, we reached the buttery, a very neat and extensive concern, supplied by one hundred and thirty cows. Through the courtesy of the dairy-maids I was introduced to all the mysteries of butter-making; which is here a sort of staple manufacture, as the Countess supplies all the surrounding district (including Kiel) with this commodity. Were I versed in modern agriculture, I should perhaps refrain from noting down as remarkable — that I saw, in a field on this estate, potatoes and Windsor beans planted together in the same rows alternately.

'The Countess Baudissinn is daughter to the late Schimmelmann of Wandsbeck, a member of a very powerful family already mentioned. The quantity of timber in her demesne is very great, and of an unusually luxuriant growth. The oaks, beeches, and acacias, are the finest I have ever seen. After half an hour's rest under a clump of poplars, environing a house of entertainment agreeably situated near the drawbridge, we were re-conveyed to Kiel by the stool-waggon, which had been here in attendance. The direct distance is only about a mile and a half; but the circuitous route by the water's side is nearly twice as long. The road intersects some very extensive fields of corn — an article of prime concern in the export trade of the town. In the suburbs we saw a pole erected for the *Vogelschiessen.*'

At length, the author returns to Lockstedt, where he originally lodged, and thus breathes his farewell sigh, which may serve as a specimen of his poetry:

'As I am very desirous to take a sketch of the cottage to-morrow morning, where I have passed so many happy hours, I walked out to Lockstedt about two hours ago in the light of the full moon, and intend to remain here for the night. The awful silence, heightened rather than interrupted by the ticking of the clock, has awakened within me a train of sombre reflections, which I have endeavoured to express in the following lines:

'*Lockstedt.*

'Lockstedt: — thy linden, oak, and chestnut bow'rs,
Stand darkling round — save where the broad, bright moon,
Piercing the twilight, rests upon the leaves;
And all is hush'd — save yonder monitor,
Whose ceaseless ticks appear the measur'd steps
Of death advancing. — Lockstedt: — I have spent
Bright hours within thee; when a joyous group,
We sat beneath the lindens, — and inhal'd
The angel breath of even, — and enjoy'd
The sweets of social converse — unrestrain'd
By cold Formality's torpedo hand.
Lockstedt: — I fly thee! Distant is my home —
An island far within the western wave: —
A few short hours — and Germany, and friends,
Fade from my eyes to dwell within my heart: —
And chiefly thou — sweet, solitary spot . . . .
I can no more — Lockstedt: — farewell, farewell!'

Mr. Downes re-embarked at Hamburg for Gravesend, notices Heligoland in passing, and quits his reader when he again sets foot on the English soil. His letters will be read with continual pleasure, if not with lively eagerness; and they may be compared to those painted landscapes of the Flemish school, which, in perfect fidelity to nature, depict every-day objects with accuracy of finish and brilliancy of colouring: introducing on the fore-ground rustic figures, in native costume and in habitual occupations, and shadowing in the distance castles of antiquity and spires of religion. Much praise is due to the talent and execution of the author, in scattering so considerable a degree of interest over the contemplation of ordinary matters, and of places little known to celebrity, or as little decorated by magnificence. In this age of topography, we may progressively expect that every hundred will find its tourist, and every wapentake its immortalizer,

> "Till not a winding bay, or shaded cape,
> Remains unwater'd with the dew of verse."

Art. XI. *Anecdotes of the Spanish and Portuguese Revolutions.* By Count Pecchio: with an Introduction and Notes by Edward Blaquiere, Esq., Author of "Letters from the Mediterranean," &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 220. Whittakers. 1823.

We should be unreasonable if we expected, from a work of such modest pretensions as the one before us, either very extensive information or very profound views. It is the production of an Italian nobleman, who, finding his name included in the list of *proscritti*, after the late unfortunate attempt in Piedmont, sought a refuge in Spain from the dangers which surrounded every man of liberal principles in his own country. A sufferer in the same cause for which the Spaniards were contending, Count Pecchio naturally looks with the eye of a partizan on the transactions which he is describing; and, without attempting to examine the principles of the new constitution, or to inform himself particularly on the feelings and dispositions of the Spanish people, he enters with enthusiasm into all the perils and difficulties of their situation.

The present anecdotes consist merely of a series of lively sketches, in which the author has drawn the characters of some celebrated individuals with whom he came in contact, and has described the impressions which the manners of the people created in his mind. While Spain continues to attract so great a portion of our attention, every kind of information claims some degree of regard; and that which is furnished by Count Pecchio is interesting from the light that it throws on the personal characters of many of the distinguished actors in the Spanish revolution, as well as from the ardent spirit in which it is written. Our readers cannot have forgotten the siege of Saragossa, where the women of Spain displayed all the heroism and energy of character for which they have been so frequently celebrated; and the following animated description of a young patriot lady would lead us to believe that the same spirit is still alive:

'I totally forgot in my last letter to point out another very powerful support of the new code. You must know that in Spain all the pretty women are constitutionalists. If, for example, yourself and your three sisters * were walking on the Prado, the crowd would immediately exclaim, "There goes a family of Liberals!" Because here, youth and beauty are the surest signs of liberalism. Last year, when Riego made his triumphant entry into Madrid, the most beautiful women of Spain smiled upon him, while the fairest hands threw flowers into the vehicle which bore him through the streets. All the remarkable days of Spanish liberty are celebrated by dances; women are the first to applaud those passages in plays which are favourable to freedom, and some of them even address the editors of newspapers in praise of the goddess. Many celebrated Amazons of Spanish freedom are to be found at Cadiz and Valencia: but the most interesting of all is a young female, to whom I had the satisfaction of being introduced some days after my arrival at Madrid. You will now be able to judge whether I know how to select a fine picture in the living gallery of Spain. Her head partakes of that charming *contour* which foreigners are never tired of admiring in most of the Spanish women; though somewhat fiery, there is yet an ineffable expression of suavity in her large blue eyes: her cheeks bear those tints which excited the fears of Cæsar on the part of Brutus and Cassius, rather than the carnation that bespeaks a heart at ease; it cannot be said she is as beautiful as one of Morillo's virgins, but she possesses that which painters find most difficult to pourtray — expression. One day she is gay and animated as a Bacchante, and on the next, sorrowful as a Madonna. Her feet, person, and gait are those of a Terpsichore; with her, nothing is studied, all is natural. Her dress is composed of black silk, trimmed with a long fringe of the same material, and reaching down to an instep of the most perfect symmetry. A rose placed in the midst of her ebon tresses forms a delightful contrast to their glossy hues; these and a white embroidered veil thrown over her shoulders, and reaching nearly to the ground, form her invariable costume, for it is national. She never appears in public, except accompanied by some officer who has deserved well of his country: when at home, she resembles Armida in the camp of Godfrey, surrounded by adoring warriors. She surpasses every other Spanish beauty in the eloquence of the fan, expressing, in its varied movements, resentment, forgiveness, indifference, affection, and all the sentiments of the mind. In days of calmness and tranquillity, she touches her piano; when the nation is agitated, recourse is had to the harp, which by her manner of striking its chords would appease the most irritated combatants: if liberty be menaced, she seizes her lute and makes the house resound with Riego's hymn.

---

* This book is addressed in the form of letters to an English-woman.

'This wonderful girl is no less attached to liberty than she is to the object of her affections. Her heart was given to a young officer who was last year one of the first to raise the cry of Spanish regeneration. Figure to yourself what must have been her sufferings during the three months he was fighting for freedom in the midst of so many perils!

'The day in which Riego entered Madrid, and just as he alighted from his carriage, a young and beautiful female was seen making her way through the crowd which surrounded the patriot chief: on reaching the spot, she took his arm, and would not give it up till he retired from public view. This was the modern Armida; she could not be prevailed on to leave the hero who had encountered the same dangers as her lover! How easy would it have been for Madame de Staël to convert this real heroine into the Corinna of Spain!'

The conspicuous part played by General Riego, in the late Revolution, gives an interest to the portrait of him which Count Pecchio has drawn.

'You are anxious to become acquainted with Riego, at least through his portrait: if I sent that engraved here a year ago, I should be deceiving you, for it resembles most of those unfaithful miniatures which are sent, previous to the celebration of certain marriages, and which are generally very bad prognostics for conjugal faith. I will not therefore forward what cannot be considered at all like the original, I do not besides wish to expose your heart to a disappointment.

'As, however, I am determined your curiosity shall not go altogether unsatisfied, I will subjoin an extempore sketch drawn by the beautiful young Spanish heroine to whom I have occasionally alluded in the preceding letters. Having had the good fortune to find her alone yesterday evening, I profited by the circumstance, and begged she would describe the hero of Las Cabezas. Without betraying the least hesitation, I immediately received the following answer: "I have so perfect a recollection, that if I was an adept in portrait painting, I should be able to draw as correct a likeness of Riego from memory, as if he sat to me for his picture, but to give his physiognomy all its expression it is necessary to be something more than an artist: he who attempts to paint Riego, should feel the same sacred fire of liberty that burns in the soul of his original. Riego is not handsome, but of what consequence is personal beauty? he possesses those of the understanding, which are infinitely more important: I think I now see his dark eyes full of vivacity and enterprise; his manly complexion, and that mouth which seems to express all the refined delicacy of his sentiments: his hair is also dark: he is of middling stature, and has a very martial air. His gait and general appearance is that of a hero. Riego is incessantly consumed by his love of liberty; and such is the natural intensity of his feelings, that it was easy to perceive him falling away, during the five days of agitation occasioned by his visit to this place last year. I should be justified in saying that Riego is diaphanous, for every body can penetrate his thoughts. His countenance is not impregnated with that mysterious melancholy, which is so often the characteristic of ambition: the Spanish hero is too ardent and enterprising, long to remain wrapped up in his own thoughts. He is a brother to the soldiery. A private and sergeant of the guards dine at his table every day. He was above two years a prisoner in France during the war of independence, and while there, employed the time in cultivating his mind in reading the best authors: he speaks French and Italian with fluency. But how am I to express the amiability of his manners to my own sex! I could not possibly leave him on the day of his entry into Madrid: I knew he was aware of my attachment to an officer of his battalion, who had participated in all his recent perils and fatigues; he spoke frequently of my friend, and seemed to dwell with pleasure on his courage and constancy. It is reported that Riego is about to marry; if so, I shall be truly mortified, for then we can no longer say, that he only lives for his country, and is exclusively attached to liberty! No! He ought not to marry: the marriage of such a man seems an act of infidelity to the nation: is he not her lover? And then ——, other women would no longer enjoy the privilege of admiring him!"'

The great change, which has taken place in the moral condition of the Spanish people, has naturally produced a spirit of inquiry; and that noble engine of liberty, a free press, must produce the most beneficial effects. Count P. gives a pleasant picture of the newspaper-readers of Madrid.

'You ask if [whether] people read in Spain? Yes, daily and with great attention: but never to the prejudice of the siesta and segar, which is eternally burning in the mouths of Spaniards. You will also ask what do they read? The newspapers, because these discuss the interests of the nation with the greatest freedom. You are awakened at day-break, not by the notes of the nightingale, but by the hoarse and shrilly cries of all the blind of both sexes, who possess the exclusive right, founded on universal custom, of selling all the newspapers of Madrid. Towards six o'clock, the hour at which I generally take my morning walk, all the waiters of the *Cruz de Malta*, where I now reside, are collected round Julian, whose lungs are somewhat more indefatigable than those of his fellow-servants, to hear him go through every journal that is published here. On my return to the hotel, Julian, whose mind is as sound as his lungs, points out the articles most worthy of being read: as I have never found that he formed an erroneous opinion, he has become quite an oracle with me, and thus saves me a great deal of unnecessary reading.

'The coffee-houses, doorways, staircases, shops, and *Puerto del Sol*, are filled with readers every day till noon. Here, you see an officer of La Isla, with his cocked hat placed crossways, curled mustachios, and sabre hanging from his side, grinding his teeth at the *Imparcial*. There, is seen a man turned of fifty, powdered and pomatumed, who throws aside the *Echo de Padilla*, as a phrenzied production: farther on, an orator of the *Fontana de Oro*, is refuting *El Universal*, the daily trumpeter of the minister. From twelve till two, most of the readers of newspapers digest what they have been perusing in the *Puerto del Sol*. The spot is so called, from having formerly been the site of one of the city gates; it has become very celebrated since the memorable 2d of May, 1808, the era of national independence. Idlers are to be found in this Madrid forum at all hours of the day.'

In many of his statements of facts the Count has been misled, but his incorrectness is generally pointed out by his editor, Mr. Blaquiere.

Art. XII. *A Treatise on the Hydrocephalus Acutus*, or Inflammatory Water in the Head. By Leopold Anthony Gölis, Physician and Director to the Institute for the Sick Children of the Poor at Vienna. Translated from the German, by Robert Gooch, M. D. 8vo. pp. 271. 8*s*. Boards. Longman and Co.

Perhaps no disease incident to the early periods of human life is so important and interesting as the hydrocephalus acutus. Its peculiar victims are the lively and intelligent children, whose characters and dispositions cause them to entwine themselves most closely with our affections: its approach, too, is in a high degree insidious; and its cure is altogether hopeless, after it has advanced beyond a certain stage in its progress. Although we have reason to believe that the venerable father of medicine (Hippocrat. *de Morbis*, lib. vii. sect. 5.) was acquainted with this disease, yet we feel warranted in ascribing to British writers the first correct knowlege of its nature; and Whytt, Fothergill, Percival, Dobson, Yeats, Cheyne, Abercrombie, have all in succession contributed to the elucidation of this complaint. Many foreign writers, also, have labored with eminent success in the same field; and among the latter, without doubt, the most distinguished is Dr. Gölis of Vienna, whose work is now before us. This gentleman enjoyed the peculiar advantage of being at the head of the institution for sick children in the Austrian capital, where a vast field of experience was laid open to him; and his treatise is the result of more than 18 years of diligent observation, during which he inspected accurately the bodies of 180 children, who died of this disease.

Dr. G. divides hydrocephalus into three species: the Hyper-acute, the Acute, and the Chronic. The first may be regarded as a true apoplexy; and the expression of Cullen, *apoplexia hydrocephalica*, or that which is used by Dr. G., *water-stroke*, is well adapted to convey an accurate idea of this fatal affection. It is a sudden effusion of serous fluid into the cavities of the brain, producing immediate paralysis, and, after a few hours, death. Dr. Gölis mentions two cases, which serve sufficiently to illustrate the strikingly rapid progress of this disease.

'An infant, eighteen months old, was placed in bed playful and laughing; about ten at night its mother left it sleeping tranquilly, *but the next morning it* was found dead. The same happened to a healthy a healthy infant six months old, which went to sleep at the breast of its nurse, but the next morning was found dead by her side. I firmly believed that the child had been overlaid, and thus suffocated; but the accurate inspection of the body discovered no trace of such a mode of death; the blood-vessels were somewhat turgid, and two ounces of turbid serum were found in the cavities of the brain.'

Although this form of disease consists essentially in an effusion of serous fluid into the chambers of the brain, very rarely preceded by any other morbid change, Dr. G. has sometimes found in such cases, after death, distinct traces of turgescence and inflammation. He always observed that the effused fluid in *water-stroke* was turbid, never so clear as in hydrocephalus, and accompanied by a smaller effusion of coagulable lymph. Treatment in such cases is useless; and the situation of the little patient being desperate, the only object which we can have in view, by the employment of remedies, is to gratify the wishes of the relatives.

Acute hydrocephalus has been divided by the present author into four stages: turgescence, inflammation, effusion, and paralysis. — Turgescence is indicated by a change in the habits and dispositions of the child. From being active and lively, he becomes sluggish and grave; from being good tempered, irritable and sullen; he dislikes light and notice; the color of his countenance fades, and his eye loses its lustre; the natural discharges diminish in quantity; appetite fails; and sleep produces no refreshment. The larger children have a sense of giddiness on sitting up; and the younger express this feeling by a rocking of the head, or by suddenly becoming silent in the midst of a cry. The former complain of pains in the nape of the neck, calves of the legs, and soles of the feet: the latter move their hands to the back of the head, and utter a whine as if in pain. The pulse, without deviating from its natural frequency, is slightly irregular, and sometimes intermitting; and, according to Dr. Gölis, it is commonly the 7th, 9th, 16th, 17th, or 31st beat which is weaker or deficient. The skin is dry; the color of the face changes; the little patient complains of successive flushings and chilness; and in his step he becomes laborious and unsteady, tottering like a person intoxicated. In what Dr. G. has named the tumultuous attack of acute hydrocephalus, which is the most rare and least insidious mode of approach, we behold a sudden accession of languor, confusion, and giddiness; headache, pain in the nape of the neck, and nausea; a full, hard, and low pulse; extreme sensibility to light, and a singing in the ears. These symptoms are speedily succeeded by violent fever, most commonly accompanied by alarming convulsions; indicating that the stage of turgescence has already passed into that of inflammation; and requiring the most prompt and active measures for the relief of the patient. A great variety exists in the duration of the stage of turgescence; which frequently lasts only a few hours, but often eight, ten, fourteen days, or even longer.

In the stage of inflammation, the patients complain more of headache, with pain in the nape of the neck and limbs; and the eye is now highly sensible to light, but does not appear bloodshot, unless in the tumultuous form of the attack. The countenance is wan; assuming a sunken and often œdematous and peculiar aspect, which is at once recognized by those who are familiar with the disease. The nose is dry, and the lips pale and chopped; the tongue becomes covered with a white or brownish yellow fur; and the patient has no longer any desire for food or drink, except when the disease exhibits the tumultuous form. Vomiting is now frequent; and any food that is taken passes undigested, mixed with greenish yellow bile and mucus. Constipation is very frequent, notwithstanding the use of medicine; and the evacuations are viscid, brown, or yellowish green. The urine is always scanty; at the beginning, turbid and white; in the subsequent stages, bright yellow, with a heavy slimy deposit. During this period of the disease, the hearing is very acute, the patient sleeps little, and, while awake, is tormented with extreme restlessness. The pulse is slow, unequal, and intermitting; the skin dry, flaccid, and discolored.—Dr. G. seems to consider the occurrence of febrile heat of body, and frequency of pulse, as uncommon in acute hydrocephalus, until the stage of palsy; except when the attack has been of that violent and rapid nature which he names tumultuous. The duration of this stage varies from a few hours to two, four, or six days, or even longer.

When the stage of effusion arrives, the continued restlessness ceases, and the patients are contented to lie in bed, sometimes on the side, but more frequently on the back, and often with one leg drawn up. They bore with the finger into the nostrils and ears, pick their lips, and catch at their eyes or the hair of the head: all the senses, except that of hearing, become extremely dull; and the intellect appears obviously weakened. Squinting, dilatation of the pupils, vibrating motion of the eye-balls, and very indistinct vision, are now observable. The body wastes to a skeleton: the urine is scanty, bright yellow, and passed unconsciously; the bowels are usually constipated; and the pulse grows much weaker and more irregular. It sometimes happens, before these symptoms are succeeded by the last fatal stage, that a sudden unexpected remission takes place, consciousness returns, the little patient speaks with distinctness and intelligence, and the fond parents are deluded with vain hopes that the object of their affectionate solicitude is yet to be preserved to them: but, after a short interval, convulsions and palsy rapidly come on, and soon terminate in death.

In the last stage, or that of paralysis, convulsions take place, generally followed by a paralytic state of one side, most commonly the right. Tetanic spasms make their appearance, pulling the head backwards and downwards. The hearing is now dull, and the eye wholly insensible to light; deglutition is very difficult; violent fever supervenes; the pulse is exceedingly frequent, more intermitting and irregular than in the former stages, very weak, and almost imperceptible.—Under these sufferings, the strength gradually sinks, and the patient, extenuated to the last degree, at length expires. 'The greater part of my hydrocephalic patients,' says Dr. G., 'of which the number amounted to some hundreds, when they died, did so between the thirteenth and seventeenth days; none before the eighth, and only a few after the twenty-fourth or thirtieth day.'

The picture which we have now drawn, the features of which we have borrowed from the work before us, exhibits a striking and accurate representation of the acute hydrocephalus in its perfect and regularly progressive form; and a still more minute and graphic delineation is to be found in the pages of Dr. Gölis. We need not, however, caution our readers against the supposition that, in every case, they are to find all these four stages distinctly marked. The first will often elude notice, and so will, in some instances, the second: indeed, we cannot but regard the stage of turgescence as merely the beginning of inflammation, and that of effusion as the commencement of the paralytic. Even Dr. Gölis seems to admit that the stages of inflammation and palsy differ chiefly in degree from those which immediately precede them. Yet we think that his division is highly valuable, and peculiarly useful in directing the movements of the practitioner.

In addition to his admirable description of acute hydrocephalus, Dr. G. has entered at some length on the diagnosis of this disease from other infantile disorders, and on its predisposing and exciting causes: he has thus still farther elucidated its nature, so as to render even the inexperienced familiar with its characters. Among the exciting causes of acute hydrocephalus,

drocephalus, he mentions the existence of the chronic disease, which in this manner terminates fatally by an attack of inflammation: but this, we think, hardly merits the name of acute hydrocephalus. On the other hand, he remarks, what we have ourselves seen, that acute hydrocephalus is in some instances checked, without being wholly cured, and degenerates into the chronic form of the disorder.

Dr. G.'s account of the appearances which present themselves after death, from hydrocephalus, is peculiarly interesting. In the water-stroke, he found the brain firmer than in acute hydrocephalus, and the blood-vessels within the cranium less enlarged and turgid. The duration of the disease he seems to consider as having a direct influence in softening the brain, and giving an increased calibre and turgescence to the vessels. When the malady had been prolonged to 24 or 30 days, he observed the medullary substance so much softened that it flowed like pap. In the water-stroke, the sutures were unchanged; in acute hydrocephalus, the bones were for the most part a little separated; in the chronic form of the disease, they were disunited at almost every point. — He agrees with several of our English writers in stating that, sometimes, after death, no effusion is found to have taken place; although the symptoms of it during life were sufficiently well marked. In one case of this description, where a very insignificant quantity of fluid was discovered in the cavities of the brain, the cerebral substance expanded when the skull-cap was removed; and, on cutting into the brain, it was perceived that an interstitial effusion of serous fluid had taken place, which oozed out from the divided surface when it was compressed by the hand. In all his dissections of acute hydrocephalus, Dr. G. seems to have detected an effusion of coagulable lymph, in a greater or smaller quantity, between the convolutions of the brain, on the corpus callosum, or within the lateral ventricles; an appearance which has been seldom if at all noted by British practitioners, in their dissections of hydrocephalus. "It very rarely happens," says Dr. Baillie, "that any layer of coagulable lymph is formed in the inflammation of the pia mater. When that membrane is inflamed to a high degree, pus is commonly formed." (Morb. Anat.) In his account of hydrocephalus, he does not once allude to the appearance of an effusion of coagulable lymph.

Both in the water-stroke and the acute hydrocephalus, Dr. Gölis found the choroid plexus pale and bloodless, — probably from the effects of pressure. He never observed the water of hydrocephalus bloody, unless when the disease was complicated with inflammation or caries of the bones of the ear.

The pituitary gland was almost always natural. He does not appear to have discovered any morbid changes in the contents of the abdomen; and in the lungs no marks of disease, except when the patient had been scrofulous, or formerly affected with a pulmonary disorder.

Like all those who are best acquainted with acute hydrocephalus, Dr. G. considers it as incurable after the early period. He seems to have no hope of the success of any treatment when effusion has taken place; and we agree with him in thinking that, after this has actually occurred, we can only palliate, and render the fatal termination less painful. In the stage of turgescence, his great remedy is calomel, which he continues also in that of inflammation: but blood-letting, both local and general, he seems to regard as the more appropriate mode of treatment, when inflammatory symptoms have shewn themselves. Bleeding with leeches he considers as a good auxiliary to calomel, in plethoric children, during the period of turgescence. — He has alluded to Dr. Peter Frank's proposal of applying leeches to the interior of the nostrils, which has been lately brought forwards by Dr. Vetch; and he states several strong objections to this particular mode of depletion, which we suspect will prevent it from being very generally adopted. The use of blisters is confined by Dr. G. chiefly to the inflammatory stage; and the situations in which he prefers to apply them are the calves of the legs, the thighs, and the upper part of the arms.

Many sensible remarks are made on the use of digitalis: but the author seems to have been deterred from giving it in full doses by the fear of exciting vomiting. He considers it as useful principally, if not wholly, from its effects in lessening the sufferings of the patient, and preventing those painful and shocking convulsions which usually precede death, at the close of this melancholy disease.

Dr. G. has introduced into his work a considerable number of cases, which are at once highly illustrative of the history of acute hydrocephalus and water-stroke, and explanatory of his mode of treatment. He has also subjoined a collection of formulæ for the preparation of the numerous diluent and emollient decoctions, combinations of calomel, Valerian, arnica, digitalis, castor, cinchona, &c., which he is in the habit of employing. His translator complains of being at a loss to comprehend the formulæ for decoctions; we presume, because the quantities of water are not given: but the meaning obviously is that such a quantity of water should be added, in each case, as to yield the stated quantity of strained liquor. The translation is open to some critical objections, which we really cannot bring ourselves to express; so great is our feeling of obligation to the gentleman who has introduced this distinguished physician of Vienna to the acquaintance of British practitioners.

We cannot take leave of the work of Dr. Gölis without recommending it, in strong terms, to all our professional brethren. 'The reader whom it will most benefit,' as Doctor Gooch has well remarked, 'is not the student in search of elementary information, but the practitioner, whom experience has already familiarized with the ordinary appearances and the customary treatment of the disease.'

ART. XIII. *Journal of the Private Life and Conversations of the Emperor Napoleon at Saint Helena.* By the Count de Las Cases.

[*Art. concluded from the Review for March last, p.* 323.]

IN our former article, we brought together from these volumes a number of passages, which presented to our readers a personal view of Napoleon, and his sentiments on a variety of topics which bore on his own individual character. We shall now offer them some of his opinions on the characters of others, with some of his statements respecting the great events in which he was engaged, and the designs which he had formed. Many of these circumstances will also tend, immediately or collaterally, to the further illustration of this extraordinary personage himself: concerning whom if the former part of Juvenal's assertion be true, the latter failed or was falsified;

> " *Ad generum Cereris sine cæde et sanguine pauci*
> *Descendunt reges, et siccâ morte tyranni.*" (SAT. X.)

A propos to "blood and slaughter," as the escape of Bonaparte in so many battles has often been matter of surprize, (though our Wellington is a parallel instance,) and has sometimes led to doubts of his personal exposure to danger, we may here introduce his own account of his wounds:

'While he was dressing, he put his hand on his left thigh, where there was a deep scar. He called my attention to it by laying his finger in it; and, finding that I did not understand what it was, he told me that it was the mark of a bayonet-wound by which he had nearly lost his limb at the siege of Toulon. —

'He observed that people had in general wondered and talked a great deal of the singular good fortune which had preserved him, as it were, invulnerable in so many battles. "They were mistaken," added he; "the only reason was, that I made a secret of all my dangers." He then related that he had had three horses killed under him at the siege of Toulon; that he had had several killed and wounded in his campaigns of Italy; and three or four at the siege of Saint-Jean d'Acre. He added, that he had been wounded several times; that at the battle of Ratisbonne, a ball had struck his heel; and at the battle of Esling or Wagram, I cannot say which, a ball had torn his boot and stocking, and grazed the skin of his left leg. In 1814, he lost a horse and his hat at Arcis-sur-Aube, or its neighbourhood. After the battle of Brienne, as he was returning to head-quarters in the evening, in a melancholy and pensive mood, he was suddenly attacked by some Cossacks, who had passed over the rear of the army. He thrust one of them away, and was obliged to draw his sword in his own defence; several of the Cossacks were killed at his side. "But what renders this circumstance very extraordinary," said he "is, that it took place near a tree which at that moment caught my eye, and which I recognised as the very one under which, when I was but twelve years old, I used to sit during play-hours and read Jerusalem Delivered." '

Respecting Napoleon's disasters and our triumphs at sea, we find few remarks, but the reason appears sufficiently in one short paragraph. *Loquitur Imperator.*

' "The Grand Marshal said, the other day, that it used to be remarked in the saloon of the household, that I was never accessible to any one after I had an audience with the Minister of the Marine. The reason was, because he never had any but bad news to communicate to me. For my part I gave up every thing after the disaster of Trafalgar; I could not be every where, and I had enough to occupy my attention with the armies of the Continent." '

To the easy good nature of the Emperor Francis, Napoleon paid a willing tribute; and of the King of Prussia his opinion was favorable, as to his private character: "he is an honorable, good, and worthy man: but, in his political capacity, he is always commanded by whosoever has power on his side, and seems about to strike."

' "As to the Emperor of Russia, he is a man infinitely superior to these: he possesses wit, grace, information, is fascinating; but he is not to be trusted; he is devoid of candour, a true *Greek of the Lower Empire.* At the same time he is not without ideology, real or assumed: — after all, it may only be a smattering derived from his education and his preceptor. Would you believe," said the Emperor, "what I had to discuss with him? He maintained that inheritance was an abuse in monarchy, and I had to spend more than an hour, and employ all my eloquence and logic, in proving to him that this right constituted the peace and happiness of the people. It may be, too, that he was mystifying; for he is cunning, false, and expert, ... ; he can go a great length. If I die here, he will be my real heir in Europe." —

'After talking awhile upon Greece, he renewed the subject: "Greece awaits a liberator! — There will be a brilliant crown of glory! — He will inscribe his name for ever with those of Homer, Plato, and Epaminondas! — I perhaps was not far from it! — When, during my campaign in Italy, I arrived on the shores of the Adriatic, I wrote to the Directory, that I had before my eyes the kingdom of Alexander! — Still later I entered into engagements with Ali Pacha; and when Corfu was taken from us, they must have found there ammunition and a complete equipment for an army of forty or fifty thousand men. I had caused maps to be made of Macedonia, Servia, Albania, &c.'

'"Greece, the Peloponnesus at least, must be the lot of that European power which shall possess Egypt. It should be ours. — And then, an independent kingdom in the north, Constantinople with its provinces, to serve as a barrier to the power of Russia: as they have pretended to do with respect to France, by creating the kingdom of Belgium."' —

'Almost every day at Tilsit, the two Emperors and the King rode out on horseback together, but, said Napoleon, "the latter was always awkward and unlucky. —

'"This awkwardness," said the Emperor, "was the more glaring, as Alexander is in possession of all the graces, and equal, in elegance of manners, to the most polished and amiable ornaments of our Parisian drawing-rooms. The latter was at times so tired of his companion, who seemed lost in his own sorrows, or in some other cause, that we mutually agreed on breaking up our common meeting to get rid of him. We separated immediately after dinner, under the pretence of some particular business; but Alexander and I met shortly afterwards to take tea with one another, and we then continued in conversation until midnight, and even beyond it."

'Alexander and Napoleon met again some time after at Erfurt, and exchanged the most striking testimonies of affection. Alexander expressed with earnestness the sentiments of tender friendship and real admiration which he entertained for Napoleon. They passed some days together in the enjoyment of the charms of perfect intimacy and of the most familiar communications of private life. "We were," said the Emperor, "two young men of quality, who, in their common pleasures, had no secret from each other."'

In Part III. of Vol. II. p. 96. *et seq.* we have some lengthened and important observations from the Ex-Emperor on the subject of his last war with Alexander: but they are too copious for us to extract. The same may be observed of the account of his interview with the fascinating Queen of Prussia at Tilsit, who exerted all her powers to induce him to moderate his terms. After he had shewn that her endeavors had failed, 'She would not accept a second invitation to dinner. Alexander was himself obliged to prevail upon her. She complained most bitterly, and maintained, that Napoleon had broken his word. But Alexander had been always present. He had even been a dangerous witness, ready to give evidence of the slightest action or word on the part of Napoleon in her favour. "He has made you no promise," was his observation to her; "if you can prove the contrary, I here pledge myself as between man and man to make him keep his promise, and he will do so, I am convinced." — "But he has given me to understand," said she, ... "No," replied Alexander, "and you have nothing to reproach him with." She came at length. Napoleon, who had no longer any occasion to be on his guard against her, redoubled his attentions. She played off, for a few moments, the airs of an offended coquette, and when the dinner was over, and she was about to retire, Napoleon presented his hand, and conducted her to the middle of the staircase, where he stopped. She squeezed his hand, and said with a kind of tenderness, "Is it possible, that after having had the honour of being so near to the hero of the century and of history, he will not leave me the power and satisfaction of being enabled to assure him, that he has attached me to him for life?" — "Madam," replied the Emperor in a serious tone, "I am to be pitied; it is the result of my unhappy stars." He then took leave of her. When she reached her carriage, she threw herself into it in tears.'

Talleyrand and Fouché are well characterized, but they are also too well known to detain us. The inflexibility of the former's countenance, and the meddling and double-dealing of the latter, are especially pointed out.

The celebrated dialogue between our ambassador Lord Whitworth and the First Consul is the subject of some of Napoleon's remarks. He totally denies the justice of the statement which is current in this country: not scrupling to declare, 'It is utterly false that any thing occurred in the course of our personal interview, which was not in conformity with the common rules of decorum;' and adding a curious assertion of *double-dealing* on the part of the political agents of Great Britain. We cannot say any thing on this point, but no doubt Lord Whitworth can.

So much has been related on the subject of the Egyptian expedition, the poisoning at Jaffa, &c. &c., that we shall not now enter at large on those topics; which here receive the same coloring that has before been given to them by Napoleon, as displayed in Mr. Warden's and Mr. O'Meara's books: but to some particulars we may yet advert. Our readers will be amused on hearing that the French leader was near being drowned like Pharaoh, in the Red Sea, though not with "all his host."

'On one occasion, the General-in-chief, having a few moments leisure to look about the country, took advantage of the ebb-tide, and crossed on foot to the opposite coast of the Red Sea. Night surprized him on his return, and he lost his way in the midst of the rising tide. He was in the greatest danger, and very narrowly escaped perishing precisely in the same manner as Pharaoh. "This," said Napoleon, "would have furnished all the preachers of Christianity with a splendid text against me." '

It is asserted that the French would have remained masters of Egypt, had Kleber lived or Desaix remained to keep the command of their army. Of these Generals, Napoleon spoke in the highest terms, calling them his 'two most distinguished lieutenants.' The former, he said, had great natural talents, which were called forth only on emergencies; while Desaix's capabilities were the result of education and assiduity, but were always in full activity, and 'he lived only for noble ambition and true glory.' It is mentioned as an extraordinary coincidence that Kleber was assassinated at Cairo, and Desaix killed at Marengo, on the very same day and at the same hour.

Of the other Generals who were distinguished in Napoleon's career, his opinions have been before related; and though they occur again in the volumes before us, we shall not revert to them. Of those who were *coming up* into eminence at the time of his own fall, he remarked, "The Generals who seemed destined to rise to future distinction were Gerard, Clausel, Foy, Lamarque, &c. These were my new marshals." Of Oudinot and Moncey, now fighting for the Bourbons in their vile aggression on Spain, he only observed that the former was a "common-place General," and the latter "an honest man." It is told of Marshal Soult, by the Ex-Emperor, that he was a matrimonial *slave;* and when Napoleon intimated an intention of sending him again to Spain, the Marshal requested his master to *propitiate his wife* on the subject; in consequence of which he actually had an interview with the lady, and gave her an *efficient lesson* on her duty.

The notices of eminent characters, however, including the different members of the Ex-Emperor's own family, are so extremely numerous throughout these volumes, that we can no longer attempt any reference to them. *

Spain

---

* When we reviewed Mr. O'Meara's book, (vol. xcviii. p. 225.) we spoke of the complaints urged by the French captives at St. Helena against their treatment there, especially from Sir Hudson Lowe, and the same allegations are abundantly repeated *here: but the* subject is ungracious, every way, not easily adjusted,

and

Spain is another topic amply introduced. Bonaparte's attack on that country first shook the key-stone of his imperial arch, and he was afterward thoroughly aware of his error. In a long conversation on the subject, in June, 1816, he fully acknowleges his mistakes, and their ill consequences; characterizes the old king and queen; relates his intercourse with Ferdinand; expatiates on various events; and concludes with a curious letter from him to Murat on the situation of Spain in 1808. — We extract some passages of his statement.

' " The plan most worthy of me, and the best suited to my project, would have been a kind of mediation like that of Switzerland. I ought to have given a liberal constitution to the Spanish nation, and charged Ferdinand with its execution. If he acted with good faith, Spain must have prospered and harmonized with our new manners. The great object would have been obtained, and France would have acquired an intimate ally and an addition of power truly formidable. Had Ferdinand, on the contrary, proved faithless to his new engagements, the Spaniards themselves would not have failed to dismiss him, and would have applied to me for a ruler in his place. At all events, that unfortunate war of Spain was a real affliction, and the first cause of the calamities of France. After my conferences at Erfurth with Alexander, England ought to have been compelled to make peace by the force of arms, or of reason. She had lost the esteem of the Continent; her attack upon Copenhagen had disgusted the public mind; while I distinguished myself at that moment by every contrary advantage, when that disastrous affair of Spain presented itself to effect a sudden change against me and reinstate England in the public estimation. She was enabled, from that moment, to continue the war; the trade with South America was thrown open to her; she formed an army for herself in the Peninsula, and next became the victorious agent, the main point of all the plots which were hatched on the Continent, &c. &c. — All this effected my ruin.

' " I was then assailed with imputations, for which, however, I had given no cause. —

' " The world will one day be convinced, that in the principal transactions relative to Spain I was completely a stranger to all the domestic intrigues of its court; that I broke no promise made

---

and we are not disposed to enter farther into it. Towards Sir George Cockburne, after all, some candor is exercised and much good opinion expressed; Count las Cases finally admitting that with him their 'grievances rested in forms rather than facts;' — 'that as a jailor he was mild, humane, and generous; but that as a host he was generally unpolite, and often something worse.' For persons in their situation, much allowance should be made; and we may also recollect Napoleon's own admission that it is " natural to Frenchmen to exaggerate, murmur, and misrepresent, whenever *they are dissatisfied.*" (*Vol. I.* Part I. p. 228.)

either to Charles IV, or to Ferdinand VII.; that I violated no engagement with the father or the son; that I made use of no falsehoods to entice them both to Bayonne, but that they both strove which should be the first to shew himself there." ' —

' "I candidly confess, however, that I engaged very inconsiderately in the whole of the affair; its immorality must have shewn itself too openly, its injustice too glaringly, and the transactions, taken altogether, present a disgusting aspect, more particularly since my failure; for the outrage is no longer seen but in its hideous nakedness, stripped of all loftiness in idea, and of the numerous benefits which it was my intention to confer. Posterity, however, would have extolled it had I succeeded, and perhaps with reason, on account of its vast and happy results. Such is our lot, and such our judgment in this world!... But I once more declare, that in no instance was there any breach of faith, any perfidy or falsehood, and, what is more, there was no occasion for them." '

It has often been mentioned that an application was made to Bonaparte, when First Consul, by the present King of France, while in his exile, for the interference of the former in restoring the Bourbon family to the throne; and Napoleon here states that such a letter from Louis was received by him, through Lebrun, from the Abbé de Montesquiou, secret agent of the Comte d'Artois at Paris:

' This letter, which was written in a very labored style, contained the following paragraph: "You delay long to restore me my throne. It is to be feared that you may allow favorable moments to escape. You cannot complete the happiness of France without me, nor can I serve France without you. Hasten, then, and specify yourself the places which you would wish your friends to possess." '

' To this letter the First Consul replied: — "I have received your Royal Highness's letter; I have always felt deep interest in your misfortunes and those of your family. You must not think of appearing in France; you could not do so without passing over a hundred thousand dead bodies. I shall, however, be always eager to do every thing that may tend to alleviate your fate, or enable you to forget your misfortunes." '

Similar overtures were also made by M. d'Artois, through 'the charming Duchess de Guiche,' who obtained access to Madame Bonaparte at Malmaison, and there also saw the First Consul: but her intercession and her fascinations all failed, and she was directed to quit Paris immediately.

With regard to his behaviour to the Bourbon family, in another instance, the case of the unfortunate Duke d'Enghien, Napoleon one day remarked to the author that his death was *still judged* in Europe "with blindness and prejudice;" and *he maintained his own* right to adopt the step which wa

take

taken, for which he enumerated his reasons. He added, that many attempts had been made to assassinate him; and that to some of them, had he remained in France in 1815, he intended to have given the most formal publicity, by which "Europe would have shuddered to see to what an extent the crime of secret assassination could be carried." He was bound in justice, however, he said, to declare that "he never detected Louis XVIII. in any direct conspiracy against his life."—An anecdote is also related, (Vol. II. Part IV. p. 222.) on the authority of M. S*****, (Savary, we believe,) at one time Napoleon's envoy to Petersburg, and afterward Minister of the Police at Paris, which shews that subsequently to the treaty of Tilsit Napoleon had no fears of the Bourbons, and no ill will towards them. After their restoration in 1814, M. de B***** addressed M. de S. in a careless manner at the Tuileries, saying;

> ' "Now that all is over, you may tell us every thing; pray, who was your agent at Hartwell?" (This was, as every one knows, the residence of Louis XVIII. in England.) S . . . . ., astonished at the want of good sense, evinced by M. de B . . . . ., answered with dignity;—"M. le Comte, the Emperor considered the asylum of kings as an inviolable sanctuary. It was a principle which he impressed upon his police, and we adhered to it. We have since learnt, that the same conduct was not observed with respect to him. But you, Sir, should entertain less doubt upon the subject than any other person. When I arrived at Petersburgh, you were there on the part of the King. The Emperor Alexander, in the first warmth of his reconciliation, acquainted me with every thing that respected you, and asked me whether it was the wish of my government, that you should be ordered to leave his dominions. I had received no instructions upon that head. I wrote for them to the Emperor. His answer was, by return of courier, that he was satisfied with the sincere friendship of Alexander; that he would never interfere in his private arrangements; that he entertained no personal hatred against the Bourbons; and that if he believed it were possible for them to accept it, he would offer them an asylum in France, and any royal residence, which might be agreeable to them. If you were then ignorant of these instructions, you will, no doubt, find them among the papers of the Foreign Office." '

Such is the infatuated conduct of this family of the Bourbons, at the present day, that France is probably yet destined to witness new scenes of political contest; and, in the vicissitudes of events, it is not impossible that the infant son of Napoleon and Maria Louisa, called the King of Rome, who is now an object of some interest, may hereafter be a personage of much greater importance. It appears from these volumes that as a child he was of an impetuous temper, but was admirably schooled and instructed by his governess, Madame de Montesquiou; to whom he was nevertheless so much attached, that he could scarcely bear the deprivation of her care and affection. In contemplating the progress of this boy in life, Napoleon had begun to form those great and comprehensive views which he directed to most objects, and of which in this instance we here find the ensuing developement:

'The Emperor had conceived many novel ideas relative to the education of the King of Rome. For this important object, he decided on the *Institut de Meudon*, of which he had already laid down the principle, with the view of farther developing it at his leisure. There he proposed to assemble the princes of the Imperial house, particularly the sons of those branches of the family who had been raised to foreign thrones. In this institution he intended that the princes should receive the attentions of private tuition, combined with the advantages of public education. "These children," said the Emperor, "who were destined to occupy different thrones, and to govern different nations, would thus have acquired conformity of principles, manners, and ideas. The better to facilitate the amalgamation and uniformity of the federative parts of the empire, each prince was to bring with him from his own country ten or twelve youths about his own age, the sons of the first families in the state. What an influence would they not have exercised on their return home! I doubted not," continued the Emperor, "but that princes of other dynasties, unconnected with my family, would soon have solicited, as a great favour, permission to place their sons in the Institute of Meudon. What advantages would thence have arisen to the nations composing the European association! All these young princes," said he, "would have been brought together early enough to be united in the tender and powerful bonds of youthful friendship; and they would, at the same time, have been separated early enough to obviate the fatal effects of rising passions — the ardour of partiality — the ambition of success — the jealousy of love." '

'The Emperor wished that the education of the princes should be founded on general information, extended views, summaries, and results. He wished them to possess knowlege rather than learning, judgment rather than attainments; he preferred the application of details to the study of theories. Above all, he objected to the pursuing of any particular study too deeply; for he regarded perfection, or too great success in certain things, whether in the arts or sciences, as a disadvantage to a prince. A nation, he said, will never gain much by being governed by a poet, a virtuoso, a naturalist, a turner, a locksmith, &c. &c." '

On the formerly threatened invasion of this country, Napoleon speaks with what Englishmen will deem the most ridiculous confidence. More interesting, and (it may be) less fanciful, are his elaborate observations on the consequences which might have followed his return from Elba, if he had been allowed to reign; and they are succeeded by a corroborating extract from a paper written by M. Benj. Constant in the *Minerve Français*, liv. 94. tome viii. They are much too extensive for us to quote, but we shall state a few of the heads of them. — Napoleon asserted that he came from Elba *a new man*, and would have been sincerely the monarch of the constitution, and of peace; that his power and resources were not what they had been; that he was not insensible to the charms of repose and security; and that, in fine, the sovereigns of Europe had no longer any thing to fear from his arms. — He next contends that they were in no danger of being overwhelmed by him with anarchical principles, which he could long before have put in operation in their states, if such had been his wish. — Did they, then, says he, " take umbrage at seeing a mere soldier attain a crown?

' " Did they fear the example? The solemnities, the circumstances that accompanied my elevation, my eagerness to conform to their habits, to identify myself with their existence, to become allied to them by blood and by policy, closed the door sufficiently against new comers. Besides, if there must needs have been the spectacle of an interrupted legitimacy, I maintain that it was much more to their interest that it should take place in my person, one risen from the ranks, than in that of a prince, one of their own family; for thousands of ages will elapse before the circumstances accumulated in my case draw forth another from among the crowd to reproduce the same spectacle; while there is not a sovereign who has not at a few paces' distance in his palace, cousins, nephews, brothers, and relations, to whom it would be easy to follow such an example if once set." '

He then argues that no fear of him ought to have been entertained by the *people* of other states; and that especially England should not have mistrusted him, since in their constitution and in their two Chambers " the French had adopted her creed for the future." — The present aspect of affairs gives too much *piquancy* to the concluding remark:

' " Had my return, my establishment on the throne, my adoption been freely acquiesced in by the sovereigns, the cause of kings and the people would have been settled; both would have gained. Now they are again to try it; both may lose. They might have concluded every thing; they may have every thing to begin again: they might have secured a long and certain calm, and already begun to enjoy it; and, instead of that, a spark may now be sufficient to reproduce an universal conflagration! Poor, weak humanity!" '

Elsewhere, conjuring up the fancy of his restoration even from St. Helena, he asks,

'"What is there to fear? That I should wage war? I am now too old for that. Is it feared that I should resume my pursuit of glory? I have enjoyed glory even to satiety. I have wallowed in it; and it may be said to be a thing which I have henceforth rendered at once common and difficult. Is it supposed that I would recommence my conquests? I did not persevere in them through mania; they were the result of a great plan, and I may even say that I was urged to them by necessity. They were reasonable at the moment when I pursued them; but they would now be impossible. They were practicable once: but now it would be madness to attempt them. And besides, the convulsions and misfortunes to which France has been subjected will henceforth give rise to so many difficulties, that to remove them will be a sufficient source of glory without seeking for any other." '

Many readers will no doubt be surprized to hear Bonaparte call himself the "Prince of liberal opinions," and declaring that he was friendly to the liberty of the press under a representative government; in which, he said, "the prohibition of it was a gross anachronism, a downright absurdity."—'He had, therefore, on his return from the Isle of Elba, abandoned the press to all its excesses, and he was well assured, that they had, in no respect, contributed to his recent downfall. When it was proposed in council, in his presence, to discuss the means of sheltering the authority of the state from its attacks, he pleasantly remarked, "Gentlemen, it is probably yourselves you wish to protect, for, with respect to me, I shall henceforth continue a stranger to all such proceedings. The press has exhausted itself upon me during my absence, and I now heartily defy it to produce any thing new or provoking against me." '

We alluded, in the former portion of this article, to Napoleon's Parallel between the French and the English Revolutions, and between Cromwell and himself. It is too curious to be omitted, though we scarcely know how to make room for it, and must abstain from any comment on it either in parts or as a whole.

'"Both in France and England the storm gathered during the two feeble and indolent reigns of James I. and Louis XV., and burst over the heads of the unfortunate Charles I. and Louis XVI. Both these sovereigns fell victims: both perished on the scaffold, and their families were proscribed and banished.

'"Both monarchies became republics, and during that period both nations plunged into every excess which can degrade the human heart and understanding. They were disgraced by scenes of madness, blood, and outrage. Every tie of humanity was broken, and every principle overturned.

' " Both in England and France, at this period, two men vigorously stemmed the torrent, and reigned with splendour. After these, the two hereditary families were restored; but both pursued an erroneous course. They committed faults; a fresh storm suddenly burst forth in both countries, and expelled the two restored dynasties, without their being able to offer the least resistance to the adversaries who overthrew them.

' " In this singular parallel, Napoleon appears to have been in France at once the Cromwell and the William III. of England. But as every comparison with Cromwell is in some degree odious, I must add, that if these two celebrated men coincided in one single circumstance of their lives, it was scarce possible for two beings to differ more in every other point.

' " Cromwell appeared on the theatre of the world at the age of maturity. He attained supreme rank only by dint of address, duplicity, and hypocrisy. — Napoleon distinguished himself at the very dawn of manhood, and his first steps were attended by the purest glory.

' " Cromwell attained supreme power, opposed and hated by all parties, and by affixing an everlasting stain on the English revolution. — Napoleon, on the contrary, ascended the throne by obliterating the stains of the French Revolution, and through the concurrence of all parties, who in turns sought to gain him as their chief.

' " All the glory of Cromwell was bought by English blood; his triumphs were all so many causes of national mourning; but Napoleon's victories were gained over the foreign foe, and they filled the French nation with transport.

' " Finally, the death of Cromwell was a source of joy to all England: the event was regarded as a public deliverance. The same cannot exactly be said of Napoleon's fall.

' " In England the Revolution was the rising of the whole nation against the King. The King had violated the laws, and usurped absolute power; and the nation wished to resume her rights. — In France, the Revolution was the rising of one portion of the nation against another; that of the third estate against the nobility; it was the re-action of the Gauls against the Franks. The King was attacked not so much in his character of monarch as in his quality of chief of the feudal system. He was not reproached with having violated the laws; but the nation wished to emancipate and reconstitute itself.

' " In England, if Charles I. had yielded voluntarily, if he had possessed the moderate and undecided character of Louis XVI., he would have survived. — In France, on the contrary, if Louis XVI. had openly resisted, if he had had the courage, activity, and ardour of Charles I., he would have triumphed.

' " During the whole conflict Charles I., isolated in his kingdom, was surrounded only by partizans and friends, and was never connected with any constitutional branch of his subjects. — Louis XVI. was supported by a regular army, by foreign aid, and two constitutional portions of the nation: the nobility and the

ergy.

clergy. Besides, there remained to Louis XVI. a second decisive resolution which Charles I. had it not in his power to adopt, namely, that of ceasing to be a *feudal chief*, in order to become a *national chief*. Unfortunately, he could not decide on either the one or the other.

'" Charles I. therefore perished because he resisted, and Louis XVI. because he did not resist. The one had a perfect conviction of the privileges of his prerogative; but it is doubtful whether the other had any such conviction, any more than he felt the necessity of exercising its privileges.

'" In England, the death of Charles I. was the result of the artful and atrocious ambition of a single man. — In France, the death of Louis XVI. was the work of the blind multitude, of a disorderly popular assembly.

'" In England, the representatives of the people evinced a slight shade of decorum, by abstaining from being the judges and actors in the murder which they decreed; they appointed a tribunal to try the King. — In France, the representatives of the people presumed to be at once accusers, judges, and executioners.

'" In England, the affair was managed by an invisible hand: it assumed an appearance of reflection and calmness. — In France, it was managed by the multitude, whose fury was without bounds.

'" In England, the death of the King gave birth to the Republic. — In France, on the contrary, the birth of the Republic caused the death of the King.

'" In England, the political explosion was produced by the efforts of the most ardent religious fanaticism. — In France, it was brought about amidst the acclamations of cynical impiety. Each according to different ages and manners.

'" The English Revolution was ushered in by the excesses of the gloomy school of Calvin. The loose doctrines of the modern school conjured up the storm in France. — In England, the Revolution was mingled with civil war. In France, it was attended by foreign war; and to the efforts and opposition of foreigners the French may justly attribute their excesses. The English can advance no such excuse for theirs.

'" In England, the army proved itself capable of every act of outrage and fury; it was the scourge of the citizens. — In France, on the contrary, we owed every benefit to the army. Its triumphs abroad either diminished, or caused us to forget our horrors at home. The army secured independence and glory to France.

'" In England, the restoration was the work of the English people, who hailed the event with the most lively enthusiasm. The nation escaped slavery, and seemed to have recovered freedom . . . . . It was not precisely thus in France.

'" In England, a son-in-law hurled his father-in-law from the throne. He was supported by all Europe: and the memory of the act is revered and imperishable. — In France, on the contrary, the chosen sovereign of the people, who had reigned for the space of fifteen years with the assent of his subjects and foreigners, reappeared on the theatre of the world, to seize a sceptre which he

regarded as his own. Europe rose in a mass, and outlawed him. 1,100,000 men marched against him; he surrendered; he was thrown into captivity, and now efforts are made to tarnish the lustre of his memory!" '

' In concluding, as we now must, we cannot but express our regret on finding this Sport of Fortune so deeply impressed with the animosity of our country towards him, as to declare in his dying moments, under his own hand, "*I bequeath the infamy of my death to the reigning family of England.*" (Vol. II. Part IV. p. 322. *note.*)

A word or two should be said respecting the execution of this work by Count Las Cases. We know not whether he has himself translated it into English, but the language is in several instances incorrect.* On the more important points of the *matter* itself, however, very many passages might be mentioned with much praise: such as his occasional reflections, his summaries, his criticisms on political works, and especially his view of the reign of our late King, the measures of Mr. Pitt, the character of the Prince of Wales, &c. which in Vol. II. Part IV. p. 300. he inserts as having presented to Napoleon for his information. Extending through 25 pages, we can scarcely receive it as an *off-hand speech*, delivered in conversation: but at any rate it is creditable to the Count for the information, the discernment, and the good feeling which it manifests.

On the other hand, we cannot lay aside this production, (of which two more volumes, we learn, have lately appeared,) without animadverting on some points, ascribable partly to Napoleon but chiefly to his devoted friend, which seem to require correction.

In a conversation on the state of society in different countries, (Part I. p. 380.) the *Code Napoléon* is said by its institutor to have been very beneficial to France, where the number of crimes had greatly diminished, while in England it had increased to a 'frightful degree;' and in a note Count Las Cases enlarges on this position, quoting what he calls 'authentic documents' from a work intitled *Situation de l'Angleterre, par M. de Montvéran.* We have never seen this publication, but its 'authenticity' appears to be nearly on a *par* with that of General Pillet's famous or rather infamous account of this country, compiled while he was a resident in one of the prison-ships. In the note before us, the population of France in 1801 is stated at 34,000,000, and the number of persons condemned to death at 882; in 1811, the population, 42,000,000, and the number condemned to death, 392: — while in *England* the population of 1801 is rated at 16,000,000, and the number sentenced to death at 3400: in 1811, the population, 17,000,000, and the capital convicts 6400. We shall not examine the writer's correctness with regard to France: but with regard to this country our readers may judge of it when we state to them that, in 1801, the population of England (including Wales, but exclusive of the army and navy, Ireland, and Scotland,) was only 8,872,980, and in 1811 only 10,150,615; while, as to the number of persons condemned to death, we have not at hand any official returns, but we have such for the years 1816 to 1822 inclusive, which were years of peace, when our population had greatly increased, (in 1822, England and Wales, 11,977,663,) and our army and navy were mostly at home, and *out of employment*, — and the *average annual* amount of capital convictions was only 1102. The *average annual executions* were only 105. The gross exaggerations here are palpable, in both the amounts, viz. of population and condemnations to death. Of the latter, the total number in the whole seven years from 1816 to 1822 is only 8146, while M. Montvéran has given 6400 to the year 1811 alone.

---

* We hear of a *dismounted* ship, for a ship taken to pieces, and of the *Chinese* fleet, instead of the China fleet; (I. ii. p. 260.) — found *grace,* for found favor; (*ib.* p. 274.) — a *ship of war* and a frigate, instead of a ship of the line and a frigate; (II. iv. p. 223.) &c. &c. — A number of blanks and broken sentences also occur, which are disappointing and vexatious to the reader, and ought, we think, to have been avoided; — filled up, or wholly obliterated.

Some aptitude to exaggerate, or inattention to accuracy, on the part of Count Las Cases, appears in Part II. p. 100., where he makes the circumference of Paris equal to 21 or 24 miles, which we believe considerably exceeds the real dimensions; and in Part IV. p. 106., where he states that during Napoleon's reign 'it had never been found possible to give him his dinner hot, for when once engaged in his closet it was impossible to know when he would leave it. Therefore, *when the hour of dinner arrived*, a fowl was put on the spit for him *every half hour*; and it has sometimes happened that *several dozen* have been roasted before that which has finally been set before him.' Now the term *several* dozen cannot apply to fewer than *three* dozen, or 36 fowls; which, allowing two to an hour, would bring the actual dinner to *eighteen hours* beyond the time fixed, or from one day far into another!

Another instance of (we should say) obvious *magnifying* on the part of the author occurs in Part I. p. 367., when he is speaking of Bonaparte's equestrian performances. The Ex-Emperor is there said to have ridden from Valladolid to Burgos, 35 Spanish leagues, (more than 100 miles) in five hours and a half; from Vienna to the Simmering, 18 or 20 leagues, (54 or 60 miles,) before breakfast, and back again to dinner; and to have often hunted to the distance of 38 leagues, or 114 miles.

Again, in Part I. p. 232., and p. 235., the author talks of the *crew* of the Northumberland expressing dissatisfaction at the course steered by that ship in her progress to St. Helena, in a manner which those who know the discipline of a British man-of-war will perceive to be highly improbable; and in pages 240. and 241. he speaks contradictorily about the certainty or uncertainty of nautical calculations. Something of inconsistency likewise appears in Part IV. pp. 229. and 231., where Napoleon's unwearied attention to the deliberations of the Council of State is generally asserted, yet his total disregard of them, even to falling asleep, is reported to have been not uncommon. — In Part I. p. 252., the Count condescends to draw over again a common Parisian caricature of John Bull, with 'great staring eyes,' and 'a great round face, to all appearance a true *vacuum plenum*:' adding an improbable instance of his ignorance and folly, coupled with a story of equal deficiency in two young ladies of St. Helena.

Lastly, with reference to Napoleon himself, when paying (Part IV. p. 121.) a merited compliment to General Bizanet for the defence of Bergen-op-Zoom against our assault in March, 1814, he rates the British force at 4800 men, though the official return was but 3950; and we apprehend that the whole of that number did not enter the town, the third column being destined merely for a false attack near one of the gates. It is, however, to be remembered that Napoleon could only have spoken according to the information which he had received.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MAY, 1823.

POLITICS.

Art. 14. *The Orange System exposed;* and the Orange Societies proved to be Unconstitutional, Illegal, and Seditious; in a Letter to the Marquess Wellesley. 8vo. pp. 91. Dublin. Milliken. 1823.

Although the annual discussion of the Catholic-question has, we firmly believe, materially contributed to neutralize the Protestant opposition in this country, we cannot help feeling that to continue the discussion now, under a cabinet at home composed of members disunited and unpledged, and with a government in Ireland likewise purposely (it should seem) formed of members who thwart and counteract each other, would be something worse than useless. The "Claims" of the Catholics are, admissibility into both Houses of Parliament, and emancipation generally from all those civil disabilities under which they now labor: — but Irish Catholics are suffering under a much sterner if not more inexorable thraldom than the government imposes: under the inflictions and exasperating scourges of certain societies, ramifying through every part of the country, organized and communicating with each other, leagued together by unholy oaths, and calling themselves Orange Societies. Whether these societies are 'unconstitutional, illegal, and seditious,' or not, at any rate they are infinitely mischievous: — they pollute the purity of justice and impede its course: — the late circuit proves that a verdict is not to be obtained against an Orangeman, for any outrage which he commits against the degraded and the outcast Catholic; — and the history, from first to last, of the recent attack on the person of the King's representative at the Dublin theatre, proves that this daring faction may beard the very government with impunity, though a faction openly proclaiming that their allegiance is qualified, and their loyalty contingent and conditional.*

The author of this little pamphlet has well employed himself in exposing the Orange system, and in publishing the oaths of initiation, the rules, orders, and obligations of this formidable combination. Many of our readers, on this side of the Channel, may have formed very inadequate notions of this mischievous confederacy, which has its Grand Masters, Deputy-Grand Masters, Grand Treasurers, Grand Secretaries, Grand Chaplains, and their respective Deputies, holding Lodges in the great Orange counties of Antrim, Armagh, Cavan, Down, Monaghan, Tyrone, &c.; communicating with each other, and with the Grand Orange Lodge in Dublin.

'What is this Orange Society, my Lord, which thus raises its front against the power of the state, — which dominates in the jury box — which, contemptible in its comparative strength, assumes the power of dividing the people of Ireland into two classes — constitutes one itself, and opposes in the other the remaining millions of our population? Where is its charter? What are its rights? What are its objects? It behoves you, my Lord, at last, insulted and overborne as you have been — it behoves you, my Lord, to make this inquiry; it is an inquiry involving questions of constitution and of law. — Consult your law-officers. — If any of those be, or if he has been an Orangeman, or if any of them has been a member of any other secret, sworn, political confederacy, exclude him from your councils on this important inquiry; for such a man, whatever may be his integrity, capacity, or intelligence on other subjects, must be unsound in this. His mind is tainted — he does not stand indifferent between the crown and the people; the stamp of faction is on his forehead, and the poison of it in his heart. On such a subject he has an individual as well as a factious interest that must govern him. He will be counsel for himself and his confederates, not for you, my Lord, and the constitution. He cannot unswear himself, and though the oath he has taken be illegal, and, in point of law, not binding, and have no sacred sanction, yet, if there be any thing of honourable or conscientious feeling about him, the oath will influence his counsel and his conduct, — he will never surrender the defence of a cause to which he has once solemnly pledged himself, and in which not his own interest and character only, but those of the friends who have confided in him, and with whom he has associated in secret council, and sworn to the common cause, — are all involved!'

---

* *See also the proceedings in the House of Commons at this moment, 26th May.*

In the year 1820 the Deputy-Grand Master, Alderman King, published, in the form of an Exposé, the rules and regulations of the Orange Society: but it appears that it has recently been withdrawn from general circulation; and the present author, who is one of the uninitiated, says that he has had much trouble in procuring a copy of these important documents: which, he believes, are now to be obtained only in the Lodges where the oaths are administered. The following is a

' *General Declaration of the Objects of the Orange Institution.*

' We associate, to the utmost of our power, to support and defend his Majesty King George the Fourth, the constitution and laws of this country, and the succession to the throne in his Majesty's illustrious house, being Protestants, for the defence of our persons and properties, and to maintain the peace of the country; and for these purposes we will be at all times ready to assist the civil and military powers in the just and lawful discharge of their just duties. We also associate in honour of King William the Third, Prince of Orange, whose name we bear, as supporters of his glorious memory, and the true religion by him completely established in these kingdoms; and in order to prove our gratitude and affection for his name, we will annually celebrate his victory over James at the Boyne on the first day of July, O. S. in every year, which day shall be our grand æra for ever.

' *Obligations of an Orangeman.*

' I. A. B. do solemnly and voluntarily swear, that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to his Majesty King George the Fourth; and that I will, to the utmost of my power, support and maintain the laws and constitution of the United Kindoms of Great Britain and Ireland, and the succession to the throne in his Majesty's illustrious house — being Protestant!

' And I do swear, that I am not, nor ever was a Roman Catholic or Papist. That I was not, nor ever will be, a member of the Society called United Irishmen, nor any other society or body of men who are enemies to his Majesty, or the glorious constitution of these realms. And that I never took the oath of secrecy to that or any other treasonable society.

'I swear, that I will, as far as in my power lies, assist the magistrates and civil authorities of these kingdoms in the lawful execution of their official duties when called on. That I will be true and faithful to every brother-Orangeman in all just actions. That I will not wrong, or know him to be wronged or injured, without giving due notice thereof, if in my power. And I solemnly swear, in the presence of Almighty God, that I will always conceal, and never will reveal, either part or parts of what is now to be privately communicated to me, unless to a brother-Orangeman, knowing him to be so by strict trial and due examination, or from the word of a brother-Orangeman; or until I shall be authorized so to do by the proper authorities of the Orange Institution.* That I will not write it, indite it, cut, carve, stain, stamp, or engrave it, or cause it to be done, lest any part thereof might be known. And, lastly, I do swear, that I have not, to my knowledge or belief, been proposed and rejected in, or expelled from any other Orange Society. So help me God, and keep me stedfast in this my Orangeman's obligation.

' *Obligation of a Purpleman.*

' I do solemnly and voluntarily swear, that I will keep the signs, words, and tokens of a Purpleman from an Orangeman, as well as from the ignorant, unless authorised to communicate them by the proper authorities of the Orange Institution.* And that I will not make, nor assist at, or sanction the making of any member in any other order purporting to be part of the Orange system, than the Orange and Purple, which are the original orders of the Orange Institution. So help me God, and keep me stedfast in this my Purpleman's obligation.'

Here we see, then, that these Societies constitute themselves protectors of the Protestant faith and Protestant constitution; and in that character, it is truly observed, they have formed themselves into an army of observation to watch over and control both the legislative and the executive powers. These Orangemen, whose numbers are estimated at two hundred thousand, here bind themselves to celebrate the victory of William over James at the Boyne, on the first day of July in every year, which shall be his grand æra, *for ever!* — to perform a specific and public act annually, and for ever, which has a direct tendency to produce disorder, riot, and bloodshed; — an act which the law of the land might at any moment make illegal, and which for the peace of society ought immediately to be so made. They also bind themselves by a solemn oath to bear true allegiance to his Majesty, and the succession to the throne in his Majesty's house, "being

---

'* The proper authorities, from whom liberty to [illegible] disclosure must be obtained, is the Grand Orange Lodge [illegible] *signified* under their Great Seal.'

Protestant," thus limiting and qualifying their allegiance, and making it conditional. This oath is an attack, not so much on the King's authority, as on the legislative supremacy.

'My Lord, if this be the nature of the oath, there can remain no doubt that all the epithets I have applied to it belong to it, and that it is unconstitutional, illegal, and seditious — for what does such an oath as this amount to? — First, it is a diminution of the unqualified allegiance which all good subjects owe to the monarch. It is more — it is an oath binding to a withdrawing of allegiance from the sovereign, under certain circumstances — on an event, which, as a sincere Protestant, I hope, and as a rational man, I am confident, will never take place, *i. e.* the King of these islands becoming a Catholic — but which, if by an alteration of the law, or even without any alteration, it did take place, the sovereign would still be entitled to allegiance. It is, in the next place, an oath, by which, in substance, the swearer pledges himself to do every thing in his power to preserve the law and Protestant establishment in its present state; to resist Popish innovation; to preserve Protestant ascendency; to prevent the sovereign from becoming a Catholic, or a Catholic from succeeding to the throne. Such an oath, my Lord, must be *unconstitutional*, because it is a principle of our constitution, that the legislature shall have uncontrolled and uncontrollable authority to enact or repeal — to abrogate or to alter any law on any subject, civil or religious. It is the principle of our constitution, that even as to the regulation of the descent of the crown itself, the legislature shall have full power — a power exercised in the very instance of their favourite William being placed on the British throne! That oath, therefore, must be unconstitutional, which has a tendency directly or indirectly to impede the legislature in the most full and free exercise of their legislative function; but such a tendency any oath has, which binds the swearer to prevent, as far as in the swearer lies, the repealing of any law! — The oath is *illegal*; because all voluntary oaths, when administered by men not magistrates, or for an illegal purpose, are so; it is *seditious*, because all acts are so that have a "direct or indirect tendency to overawe the measures, or distract or disturb the course of the King's government."'[*]

The Orange Societies, too, have *secret* articles: their oath requires those who take it to do every thing prescribed by the rules of the Society, and to refrain from doing any thing prohibited by those rules; and it moreover binds them to a *concealment* of whatever may be communicated when they take the oath. — Among the secret articles of the Grand Orange Lodge, published in 1800, we observe the fifth is that "We are not to carry away money, goods, or any thing from any person whatever, *except arms and ammunition*, and those only from an enemy." From an enemy! what enemy? Some foreign invader who menaces their shores; or is it not rather the poor native Catholic? There is another secret ar[illegible] e eighth, that "An Orangeman is to keep his brother's [illegible] his own, unless in case of murder, treason, and perjury of his own free will."

Is it possible, while such a system as this is at work, that the Catholic peasantry should remain passive;—that they should suffer every imaginable outrage without resistance, and, being smitten on the right cheek, turn the left also? The Catholics will have their Ribbon-men and Peep o'Day Boys; they will take vengeance, a dreadful and a bloody vengeance on their oppressors; and, as long as sworn Orange Lodges are tolerated and countenanced, they will have counter-societies, and associate for defence in the first instance and revenge in the second. This is the nature of man. As well may we expect to see the Negro change his colour and the leopard his skin, as to see Ireland tranquil and prosperous till the last line of the Catholic code is obliterated, and the last of the Orange Lodges utterly destroyed.

Art. 15. *Observations on the State, Character, and Advancement of the Established Church in Ireland:* including Considerations on the constitutional Fidelity of Lay Members, and occasional Notices of an important Question now at Issue. 8vo. pp. 82. Dublin, Milliken.

We doubt not that these observations emanate from some pious pastor, who devotes the whole energies of his mind and body to the temporal as well as eternal welfare of his flock. In describing the duties of the pastoral office, visitation of the sick, education for the young and the ignorant, solace to the afflicted, and bounty to the poor, it is very clear that he shrinks not from the performance of them: but we cannot help suspecting that, from his own exemplary conduct perhaps, he is apt to think much too highly of others. Had the Protestant clergy of Ireland, with their enormous revenues, performed their ecclesiastical functions with half of the zeal and constancy for which credit is given to them, they would not have to witness those numerous conversions to the Catholic faith which, we have understood, are daily increasing.

The author of these pages is a strenuous supporter of the Protestant establishment and Protestant ascendency: but we venture to say that he never took the Orangeman's oath; and that, defended with the panoply of truth, he would use no arms but those of mild persuasive reasoning. He is, however, deeply imbued with the *esprit de corps;* and he must not expect our concurrence when, speaking of the episcopal revenues, he says that 'there is no property in the country, whether in public or private hands, which possesses *similar* claims to the protection of the laws, and *to an inviolable security;* the episcopal dignity being generally the reward of virtues of the first class, of distinguished piety, profound learning, and constitutional principles!' P. 48. Again, p. 67.; the land-owner is exhorted that 'the view in which he is bound to regard those who move within the sphere of his influence comprehends, amongst its most prominent features, the obligation of a *decided preference* in the concerns and contingencies of property to the members of the established church, &c.' It appears, then, that the reverend author of these pages, with all his desire to promote unanimity and peace, is a very vigilant guardian of the revenues of his church; forgetful, perhaps, that the incredible and enormous amount of those very revenues forms a most natural and reasonable ground for jealousy and dissatisfaction. He is an enemy to the Catholic claims, and says that it is cruel to excite in one party expectations *impossible to be fulfilled*; and that it is hostile to the constitution to engage in the repeal of restrictions necessary for its preservation, and in its children an offence partaking of the sacrilege of Korah and the defection of Jeroboam.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 16. *The Republic of the Ants*; a Poem: illustrated with Notes, developing the various Modes of Life of that singular little Insect. By the Author of the Monarchy of the Bees. 12mo. pp. 104. *2s. 6d.* Boards. Simpkin and Marshall. 1822.

It might seem harsh to say that this little and well-meant effusion is destitute of the spirit of poetry; yet it manifests such a defect of vigor in the powers of invention and execution, that we cannot venture to assign to it any very prominent station on the hill of Parnassus. As the author himself slightly alludes to the apparent incongruity of the title with the *queens* and *sovereigns* who figure in his theme, we may remark that the more general term of *society*, or *government*, would have obviated the political solecism. The whole machinery of the piece consists in the supposed convocation of an assembly of some of the species of Ants, in which the speakers expound the modes of proceeding in their respective tribes: — some scattered statements of Huber, &c. which form the notes, being put into verse, and distributed into five sections.

We quote, as no unfavorable specimens of the author's manner, a part of his description of the encounters of the Sanguine Ants, and of the desolate scene of the once bustling Carthage:

'The Sanguine hosts now reinforced once more,
Upon the Negro troops their forces pour;
On every point they make the dread attack,
In hopes thereby the city soon to sack.
The bold besieged a firm resistance make,
But overpowered, themselves to flight betake,
Seize on their young, and in confusion fly,
And on their speed alone for life rely.
In close pursuit the Sanguine army flies,
To make the infant progeny their prize;
Some through the victor's ranks now fight their way
To save their young, or boldly fall a prey;
But now the Sanguines enter swift the gate,
And seize the treasures yet within the state;
Whole bands of troops with pillage laden speed
Their way, while other porters swift succeed;
But night comes on, the victors still remain
Till purple morn illume the skies again. —
'A Termité, from Afric's distant land,
Next to address the assembly takes his stand:
"Where Carthage stood, an empire once renown'd,
There our unnumbered palaces abound,
Her proudest spires long mouldered to decay,
At time's stern feet, now all in ruins lay,

Where busy nations, once like waters strong,
Press'd thro' the streets, as billows rush along;
Where cities swarmed with men, as hives with bees,
And the vast din was as the roar of seas,
As a night vision, or a noontide ray,
Or airy phantom, all has pass'd away.
Now deepest silence o'er the wide waste reigns,
Nor human voice is heard, nor footsteps cross the plains;
The tow'ring pyramids all lonely stand,
The mournful spectres of the naked land,
And seem in solemn silence to deride
Themselves, the monuments of human pride,
The dust of those, perhaps, that rear'd them high
By whirlwinds heap'd around their basements lie.
No chronicler remains to tell the tale,
Now time hath o'er their history spread his veil.
The dust of men and cities but remains,
Save these lone trophies of their mighty pains;
Such once was Carthage, Egypt, Babylon,
Empires that but exist in name, now gone,
Reduced to earth, the race of mortals sleep,
Their cities and themselves make one promiscuous heap,
Our palaces alone their domes display,
And rear their heads above the ruins grey." '

The proportion of flat and prosaic lines in a performance of such very limited extent is somewhat unreasonable; and the periods, without any cogent necessity, are sometimes so unduly protracted, that a puny pismire harangues through a couple of pages without taking breath. Such verses as the following are at variance with the ordinary rules of grammar:

' The sun, that ushered in their bridal day,
Beheld them on the lake all lifeless *lay.*' —
' Be bold, be valiant, make the silent grave
Your choice, rather than yield to be *a slave.*'

The sense and the syntax both required the author to write *slaves.*

' A veteran Amazon, *yet other deeds*
That to their race *relates, thus wise proceeds.*' —
' But each before the phantom's gained *expire.*' —
' The fluid juice their craving needs *allay.*' —
' *Whose feats perhaps the half remains untold.*'

Moreover, we cannot connive at such rhymes as *brow* and *forego*, *burn* and *concern*, *greet* and *relate*, *war* and *withdraw*; nor at such accentuation as, *cómpeers*, *apértures*, *ámours*, *ádvanced*, *haráss*, &c.

The marvellous conduct and exploits of ants are not undeserving of the purest and most exalted strains.

Art. 17. *The Enchanted Flute*, with other Poems; and Fables from La Fontaine. By E. P. Wolferstan. 8vo. pp. 440. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

This modest volume deserves more notice than it will in all probability attract; for it is written in that easy and polished style which half a century ago was in high favor with the public, but which of late years has yielded to rougher measures. In the present instance, the smoothness and melody of Mrs. Wolferstan's versification are well suited to her subjects, which are all of a light and gay though generally of an instructive nature. Her original poems are very pleasing, but do not in our opinion equal her translations from Fontaine, which are highly spirited. We select, as a chance specimen, 'The Crow and the Fox.'

> ' A certain Crow, in judgment weak,
> As Crows *may* be,
> Sat once, some cheese within his beak,
> Perch'd on a tree.
> Signior Reynardo from below
> The treasure saw,
> And simp'ring much, and bowing low,
> Address'd Sir Caw,
> " By all that's lovely, on my word,
> You are a Phœnix of a bird!
> What are the Peacock's vaunted hues?
> Mere shreds and patches, greens and blues!
> Not to be mention'd in a day
> With the rich sables you display.
> And then your form! where shall we find
> Such symmetry and grace combin'd?
> O! if your voice as much excel,
> No Nightingale can sing so well."
> The Crow, his feelings in a flutter,
> Prepar'd the charming sounds to utter,
> For " O! how pleasing 'tis to please!"
> The old song says, so dropp'd his cheese.
> " My worthy friend," Reynardo cries,
> Experience only, renders wise.
> Your cheese is lost, but you 're a winner;
> My lesson's fairly worth a dinner:
> Who to the flatt'rer deigns to stoop,
> Begins a fool, and ends a dupe." '

Art. 18. *The Fudge Family in England.* Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Miller. 1823.

Fudge, indeed! This is all fudge, but not of the real Fudge family, (though apparently of the sister-island,) nor more like to them than Hyperion to a satyr. We have rarely met with such miserable stuff printed as poetry, though intended to be of the familiar kind, continued through so many pages: yet the notes shew that the writer is a man of education, and has some acquaintance with the Roman poets. Before he again attempts to write verses, let him first re-peruse the Epistle to the Pisos,

> ——— " *Et versate diù quid ferre recusent,*
> *Quid valeant humeri.*"

Each letter has a slip of paper inserted at the commencement, indicating errata *to it*, but not correcting a tythe of the errors *in* it; for the printer does not seem to have deemed it worth his while to execute *his* duty with any accuracy; and the preface, in particular, is nearly unintelligible from bad punctuation.

We recommend the following lines to the reader's *patronage*, and to the writer's *re-consideration*:

'Like to a nag, with but one shuffling gait,
Should he presume, to start for the king's plate;
Try at Newmarket, ere to win a race,
Wanting in mettle, bone, in speed, and pace;
His fate would be, to toe, to trip, and stumble,
And in the course, with broken neck, to tumble!
Such fate awaits him, who'd oft change his style,
And force his Peg'sus, beyond its speed one mile;
And mine's as lean, as jolter e'er bestrode,
A jade too dull for race, or chace, or road;
Warn'd by the likeness, I own, I'd just as soon
Follow the glimpses, of the changing moon;
As others follow, through the varying climes,
Of biting north, or yet of warmer rhimes;
I tried it once, and what with jolts, and spattering,
And from my friends got such a tearing, tattering;
My bones so ached, and weary got, and crazy,
That I resolved, henceforth, to ride him easy, (*aisy*,)
On some straight, level, pleasant kind of way,
Where rests were frequent, and scenes were fresh and gay;
No heights to climb, or cataracts to pass,
Defiles, or gullies, mountain, or morass,' &c. &c.

So, it seems, the author has tried once and again:—let him beware of the third time. It is as difficult to win the bays at Olympus as the plate at Newmarket; and if his friends have already given him a *tearing* and *tattering*, what can he hereafter expect from his enemies, if he makes his readers such by repeating his intrusion on them under false names and false pretences?

Art. 19. *Gonsalvo; a Tragedy: in Five Acts.* 8vo. 2*s*. Hunter. 1822.

Art. 20. *King Edward and Queen Marguerite.* A Tragic Poem. 8vo. Printed at Royston. 1822.

We class these two productions together, in order to throw away on them the least portion of our own time and that of our readers. It is enough to say that the author of *Gonsalvo* has not the slightest idea of blank verse, though some unaccountable fancy has induced him to distribute his drama into long and short lines, so as to offend at once both the ear and the eye. He is a sort of poetical anti-Procrustes; for, instead of making his lines all of the same length, he seems determined that each shall have a different measure. Such being the nature of his versification, we leave the reader to judge of his other merits. — The drama intitled *King*

Edward and Queen Marguerite is a crude and we apprehend a juvenile composition; not without marks of ability, although it exhibits a *plentiful want* of judgment and good taste. Of the two tragedians, the first appears to be insusceptible of amendment: but the last may perhaps, with care and attention, succeed in accomplishing something respectable.

Art. 21. *The Psalms;* or, Sacred Odes of the Royal Psalmist David, and others, *the Prophets of Jehovah;* in Metre. By William Coldwell. 12mo. pp. 125. 6*s*. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

However laudable may have been the motives which induced the author of this new version of the royal psalmist to give his labors to the world, our duty to the public will not permit us to countenance such a strange and unprecedented innovation on the usual rules of grammar and common sense. Dissatisfied, it seems, with the *prosaic garb* in which the Hebrew original had hitherto appeared, — as also, we presume, with the different poetical versions, which he does not notice, — Mr. C.'s avowed object was to supply the *desideratum* of a spirited and poetical translation of the Jewish writings; a design in which, we are compelled to say, he has by no means succeeded. His own account of a former attempt which he made will very well apply to the present:

'Many years ago, I made the attempt myself, but this effort, although closely pursued and long continued, was completely abortive. My attempt was to translate the Psalms into English verse, terminating with rhyme. After completing a large portion of the Psalms, agreeable to my original plan, I proceeded to revise and correct them for the press; but every revision on comparison with the original degraded in my eyes my productions more and more; until jaded I burnt one, another and another; a mere fragment alone remaining of all my labors; and these merely to remind me of the abortion of my toils. Thus, after years of labor, I relinquished the whole design. One of the Psalms which escaped the flames was the third.'

We are sorry that it did, and that Mr. C. ever thought of resuming his labors on the present plan. He ought to be aware that a perfectly faithful translation *may* be given, without exposing the vernacular tongue to ridicule and converting it into absurdity.

Art. 22. *Fables and Moral Poems.* By William Coldwell. 12mo. 2 Vols. in One. 6*s*. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

We have little to say respecting these volumes, in addition to our remarks on the preceding publication. They are of the same family, and have the same cast of sentiment and language, as far as a want of genius in the poet is concerned. Neither the imagery nor the allegory makes the smallest approaches to poetry or meaning. They may perhaps be best described by negatives, not possessing any quality that can give them the least title to excellence and use, and manifesting neither sense nor taste, nor grammar nor poetry.

HORTICULTURE.

Art. 23. *Hortus Anglicus;* or, the Modern English Garden: containing a Familiar Description of all the Plants which are cultivated in the Climate of Great Britain, either for Use or Ornament, and of a Selection from the established Favourites of the Stove and Greenhouse; arranged according to the System of Linnæus; with Remarks on the Properties of the more valuable Species. By the Author of "The British Botanist." 2 Vols. 12mo. 16*s.* Boards. Rivingtons. 1822.

In our Number for December, 1821, we were induced to give a favorable report of a publication intitled *The British Botanist;* and the same author now solicits our attention to a more extended compilation, of which the main object seems to be to introduce the student of mere indigenous botany to some degree of familiarity with the more ordinary contents of the parterre, stove, and conservatory. In pursuance of this design, he has culled, and placed at the head of each class, the essential generic characters from the last edition of Linné's *Species Plantarum,* edited by Willdenow, with occasional emendations and additions from the *Hortus Kewensis,* and the writings of Sir James Edward Smith. To this synoptical view of the selected genera, succeed the accented title of each, its real or fancied derivation, the natural order to which it appertains, and the numerical amount of its known species. These are followed by the accented titles of the species exemplified, with their essential and more lengthened descriptions, taken from such works as the Botanical Magazine, Sowerby's English Botany, Martyn's Miller's Dictionary, Rees's Cyclopædia, &c., and generally reduced to a compendious and popular form; the author having studiously avoided all display of scientific discussion and technical phraseology. To the descriptions are subjoined, on the authority of the Kew Catalogue, the date of inflorescence, the native country of the plant, and the period of its introduction into this island; besides, occasionally, a few economical remarks relative to one or more of the species particularized.

From this sketch of the general plan of the publication, it will be readily conceived that it is intended rather as a work of reference than for continuous perusal. It might, perhaps, have been rendered more congenial with the import of the title-page, and at the same time a more useful practical guide, by cancelling the accounts of some of the less uncommon indigenous plants, and thus making room for notices of the modes of cultivation of others. The etymologies of the generic terms are sometimes ludicrously strained: yet even the attempt to ascertain the most obscure of them is laudable; and the notation of the prosodial quantity of the names, which is too often overlooked in elementary treatises, may be acceptable to more than the uninitiated in the paths of Flora. On the whole, the author's exertions and diligence may be of acceptable service to all who are partial to the interesting recreation of useful or ornamental gardening.

NOVELS.

Art. 24. *Valperga;* or, the Life and Adventures of Castruccio, Prince of Lucca. By the Author of "Frankenstein." 12mo. 3 Vols. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

Although *Valperga* is a much more *tolerable* production than "Frankenstein," yet we cannot pronounce it to be absolutely pleasing. It is clearly written, and the characters are not ill-developed: but the subject is not well-chosen, and the tale is tedious. The real Castruccio was little fitted to be converted into the hero of a novel, and the present writer has not been able to give any additional interest to his character. He is represented as one whose earlier and purer feelings are all destroyed by his lust of power, which absorbs every other passion; so that he becomes a cold, bloody, implacable tyrant, without pretensions to a single virtue, and without the redeeming feature of one splendid vice. Even his ambition is ignoble.—Something, indeed, must be granted to historical fidelity, and it may be said that his vices were those of his age: but why should such times and such characters be selected by the novelist?

Euthanasia, the heroine, is on the whole finely drawn; and the decline of her affection for Castruccio, as time more fully reveals his errors and crimes, is skilfully described. The story of Beatrice, also, an enthusiastic girl, who believes herself to be divinely inspired, possesses considerable interest. Having sacrificed her honor to Castruccio, she becomes a *Paterin,* or believer in the evil principle, a heresy not uncommon at that period in Italy. In the delineation of her character, we find some traces of the wild imagination which figured in "The modern Prometheus."

The historical allusions in this novel are managed with spirit and accuracy; and, had the writer selected a hero for whom we could have felt any other sentiment than that of mingled contempt and abhorrence, we should have read her work with very considerable pleasure.

Art. 25. *A New-England Tale.* From the Second American Edition. Revised and corrected by the Author. 12mo. 6*s.* Boards. Miller. 1822.

This little tale is on the whole a favorable specimen of American talent and feeling. Some objections have been made in America to its religious character, but we do not see any good grounds for such imputations. Every character in the tale, indeed, seems to possess distinct notions on religious subjects: but the author has granted a wise toleration to all of them, except a bigoted Calvinist.—The hero is what is usually called *a wet Quaker;* and the heroine, who is originally, if we mistake not, somewhat of a Methodist, ends by assuming the close cap and sober-colored gown of *a Friend.* Whatever may be thought of admitting such a diversity of faith into the narrative, the practical religion which it contains cannot be censured by any reader.—We have remarked a few *Americanisms* in these pages, but they are generally put into the mouths of the inferior characters, and cannot therefore be justly made objects of criticism.

Art. 26. *The Pleasures of Friendship:* a Tale. 12mo. *5s.* Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

The language of this fair writer is rather prolix, inflated, and incorrect: yet she certainly introduces many moral reflections, which may be useful to those who can find interest in the tale.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 27. *The Life of William Penn,* abridged, and adapted to the Use of Young Persons. By Mary Hughes (late Robson). 12mo. *4s. 6d.* Boards. Darton. 1822.

This is a very agreeable little abridgment, which we can recommend with confidence to the perusal of our younger readers. Few pieces of biography furnish a better lesson than the life of William Penn; who, whatever may be the opinion entertained respecting his peculiar religious views, is a noble example of firmness of principle, benevolence of feeling, and inflexibility of purpose. Perhaps, on the whole, the most questionable part of his conduct was his determined and uncompromising opposition to his father's wishes and views: but even this error, if it be one, arose from his powerful sense of what he imagined to be higher duties.

In addition to the excellent moral influence which the biography of this extraordinary man is calculated to exert, it is both useful and amusing from the light which it occasionally throws on a very interesting and eventful period of our history. Nothing reflects greater credit on the memory of Penn, than the kindness and forbearance which he displayed towards the Indians, who had been shamefully oppressed and aggrieved by the former settlers; and it was he who may be said to have set the first example of that wise and humane line of policy, which led a few years since to the abolition of the infamous traffic in slaves. Mrs. Hughes has selected some curious details relative to the state of the Indians on his settlement in America; and she has likewise given the whole of his invaluable and affecting letter to his wife and children, on his departure for the New World. The exhortations contained in this paper cannot be too strongly impressed on the minds of the juvenile-reader.

EDUCATION.

Art. 28. *Hints to Mothers, on the Cultivation of the Minds of their Children,* in the Spirit of Pestalozzi's Method. By a Foreigner, Three Years resident at Yverdun. 8vo. 1*s.* Longman and Co. 1823.

As the infant draws its first and most delicious nutriment from the breast of its mother, so from her likewise does it receive the first of its moral and intellectual impressions; and in return, — for nature is all beneficent and just, — it is for the mother that the first blossoms of the child's affections are expanded, and round her heart its earliest tendrils are intwined. The maternal influence in the first years of life is supreme; and so much does the character of the future man depend on the impressions of good or evil, virtue or vice, restraint or violence, which is indelibly stamped on the child by the *example* rather than by any barren precepts of the mother, that her responsibility may be likewise termed supreme, being commensurate with her influence.

On a former occasion, we detailed at considerable length the system of practical education which is adopted by M. Fellenberg at Hofwyl, and by M. Pestalozzi at Yverdun. (M. R. vol. xcix. p. 451. *et seq.*) The Hints here given, 'in the spirit' of Pestalozzi's method, are intended for the earliest period of infancy; and the present pamphlet is the first number of a work which is announced to be continued. The Hints are very good, as far as they go: but, if the author's real object is to diffuse his principles of instruction widely, he must do this more cheaply; and perhaps it would be better if he would select some periodical miscellany as the vehicle of his future communications.

Art. 29. *Lives of learned and eminent Men.* Taken from authentic Sources, and adapted to the Use of Children of Four Years old and upwards. Small 12mo. 2 Vols. 3*s.* Half-bound. Baldwin and Co. 1823.

We have so frequently lamented the present inundation of *baby novels*, containing descriptions of such good boys and girls as never existed, with such treats and rewards as few parents could furnish, that we cannot but approve this writer's plan of amusing biography. We think, too, on the whole, that the attempt is well executed: but, in the Life of Tasso, his patron Duke Alphonso is represented as all kindness and forbearance towards the unfortunate poet; and some proper names are incorrectly spelt.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 30. *Outlines of Character:* consisting of the Great Character; the English Character; Characteristic Classes in relation to Happiness; the Gentleman; External Indications of Character; Craniology; the Poet; the Orator; Literary Characters; the Periodical Critic; the Man of Genius. By a Member of the Philomathic Institution. 8vo. 9*s.* Boards. Longman and Co. 1822.

In this volume we are presented with a series of amusing superficial essays, in which the meagreness of the thoughts is amply compensated by the exuberance of the language. The author seems to combine a happy mode of dwelling for ever on the same nothings, with a magisterial air and an assumption of classification. We consider the best essay to be that which treats on the Character of the Orator, and the worst that which relates to the External Indications of Character. In his discusion of Craniology, the writer speaks with great familiarity of writers on the philosophy of the mind, but betrays a lamentable ignorance of what has been written on that subject. The subsequent remarks in the essay on Oratory are not new, but the matter deserves more attention than is generally paid to it.

'Independent of the general powers of the mind, which are called into exercise in public speaking, there are certain *habits* necessary to the easy, as well as skilful practice of the art. They are, perhaps, more of a mechanical than an intellectual nature. They consist in accustoming the mind, on all occasions, to arrange its thoughts with regularity and order,—to aim at expressing them, even upon the most ordinary subjects, with clearness and force; and to avoid a hasty and careless method of speaking, even upon unimportant occasions. There is another useful habit. Every active mind, when not employed in receiving or communicating ideas, is engaged in some thought or speculation. Instead of permitting those thoughts to wander at their own pleasure, or at the impulse of fugitive and fantastic associations, let them be reduced to order and subjection. A subject may be investigated, and a series of arguments fashioned and arranged, as well in accidental solitude, as when we purposely summon our thoughts to a laborious preparation. Besides these habits, it is of course essential to acquire the most perfect self-possession and confidence — a mental courage and equanimity, which, by some, can only be attained by careful habit and long experience. Too much ought not to be attempted at first. If we commence with an effort beyond our powers, and consequently fail, we are disheartened in our future progress. It is the case in every undertaking. If we attempt to wield weapons beyond our strength, we become feeble by the disproportionate exertion, and unable to use even the powers we really possess.'

We do not extract this passage as a fair specimen of the work, for this is plain and tolerably simple: but the general style of the composition is far different; and the author might be justly offended with us if we did not declare that his composition in general is of a much more poetic cast, more elevated, and spangled with all the flowers of rhetoric. We are happy, too, to see the existence of a Philomathic Institution announced; for we are fond of old names, and it is so long since we met with the word *Philomath*, that we almost feared it had expired with an old and valued friend, Mr. Partridge.

In the essay on the Periodical Critic, we may be deemed too decidedly *interested* to give a fair opinion: but we really do not regard the attack as worthy of resistance. Among the objections to periodical criticism, the author states the necessity of bringing out at the appointed time the usual portion of matter, even 'if the tribe of authors should have been more idle or more cautious than customary, and have failed in supplying materials for dissection.' "Bless his five wits!" What can he know of the constant *inundations* of the press in England? He might as well talk of a Dutchman wanting water at Rotterdam, Amsterdam, or any of his native *Dams.*

Art. 31. *Tom and Charles*, or the Grinders; being the History of two Boys, educated in the Charity School at Sheffield: faithfully delineating Personages and Scenery peculiar to the Neighbourhood. By a Trustee of that Institution. 12mo. 2*s.* 6*d.* Boards. Printed at Sheffield. 1823.

The difference between virtue and vice, and their ultimate effects on their votaries, have so often been exhibited in the accounts of individuals, male and female, that such relations can have but little novelty in their character or object, farther than as the circumstances vary. The nature of man, however, always the same in heart, but constantly renewed in fresh accessions to this world of beings, requires the frequent repetition of the same lessons and warnings; and the narrative before us adds the merit of being principally founded on fact to that of an interesting detail: together with that of forming a laudable exhibition of the contrast between probity, industry, charity, and religion on one side, and profligacy, idleness, hardness of heart, and impiety on the other. A desirable and consoling reformation, however, though late, finally effects a complete change even in the abandoned Tom Crafty.

Our readers will perhaps ask what is meant by 'the Grinders;' and the author, whom we half suspect to be his own biographer, under the name of Charles Lowly, being aware of the probability of such an inquiry, thus replies to it:

'What are technically denominated *wheels* in Sheffield and the neighbourhood, are mills for grinding the iron and steel articles manufactured in the district called Hallamshire; to the limits of which the powers of the incorporated body of cutlers extend. The building itself is generally the property of one person, but he lets off, to different grinders, what are denominated the *troughs*, or the parts in which each grinding-stone is fixed. One grinder, however, has often several of these troughs for himself and apprentices. The grinders, therefore, are little independent masters, working for any manufacturer with whom they can make a bargain. The buildings, particularly the old ones, are frequently irregular in their form, consisting of parts added at different times, and rude in their constructions. Often little more than the roof is visible, the rooms being sunk deep in the ground.'

A picturesque description follows, of the stream and the valley on which these mills are situated.

Art. 32. *Sixteenth Report of the Directors of the African Institution*, read at the Annual General Meeting, 10th May, 1822. With an Account of the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting, and an Appendix. 8vo. pp. 412. 7*s*. Hatchard.

This Report contains a mass of valuable and interesting information on the present state of the slave-trade, the text being supported by extracts from parliamentary documents and authentic communications. We are sorry to say that all the best accounts concur in stating the trade to have been prosecuted in 1821 with singular and increased activity. The following extracts from a report by Sir George Collier (lately our naval commander on the African coast) contain much matter in a very few words, and no doubt will suggest very serious reflections to our readers without the aid of any comments:

' "Very early in 1821, so close to the British settlements as the Galinas, the schooner Carlotta was boarded by his Majesty's ship Myrmidon; the master and supercargo were then said to be on shore contracting for a cargo.

'"The vessel was under the colours of Spain; but she had no papers whatever; and though there seemed no doubt that she, like very many others similarly circumstanced, was at one period of the year engaged in piratical cruizing, and in slaving, when it seemed to offer better prospects; and it was acknowledged by part of the crew that the object of the vessel was slaving (but this was qualified by stating, that the slaves were to be embarked south of the line); yet not having any slaves on board, although the want of papers would seem to found a reasonable suspicion of her being a pirate, it was not thought prudent to take her to Sierra Leone for adjudication. But as I considered it my duty to frustrate the evident intentions of the Carlotta, if possible, I took her in charge from Captain Leeke, and towed her to Cape Coast Castle, where, after receiving the depositions of the crew, I dismissed her. When no longer detained by me, she beat round Cape Palmas, back to the very spot where she was first met, confirming my original suspicion of her object. Her cargo being prepared, she embarked 260 slaves: and the very next day, in a tornado off St. Ann's, for want of timely precaution, upset; and, dreadful to relate, *the whole of these wretched people confined in irons sunk with her.* And I cannot help regretting that her master, (who was the whole time on board in disguise, though sworn by himself to be left on shore,) and two of her crew, contrived to reach Sierra Leone in a boat, where I found them — as humanity would induce, but as justice would forbid — lodged in the hospital, receiving all the comforts British charity would bestow upon those of better deserts.

'"In February, 1821, Captain Finlaison of the Morgiana, reported to me his having captured the Emilia, from Onim, in the Bight of Biafra, with 369 slaves, and that many other slave-vessels had been seen in the Bight.

'"The Portuguese master of the Emilia affirmed, in my presence, that he came from Malembo, south of the line, though it is proved that he left Onim only three days previously to his capture; and the wounds from the hot iron, on the breasts of the men, and the bosoms of the women, marking the property, being still fresh, gave further evidence of his falsehood.

'"Slave-masters generally keep two log-books; one for the purpose of navigation, and the other to produce in case of detention by a British cruizer; as was the case in the present instance.

'"Within sight of a Danish fort, on the Gold Coast, a slaver was fearlessly shipping his cargo, when the governor of Christianbourg secured the offender, and liberated the slaves.

'"In the river Lagos, I had information, in the month of March, of there being three vessels slaving; yet, as I was aware notice of his Majesty's ship being at Whydah would be immediately conveyed to Lagos, I knew my only chance of capturing any of them was by keeping the sea, and meeting them when their cargoes were on board.

' "In the river Bonny, in March, 1821, the Spanish schooner Anna Maria, of 170 tons, was captured by the boats of the Tartar and Thistle; and though her slave-room was but two feet eleven inches high, she had no fewer than 450 slaves on board; and that it may be understood how daring the slave-traders are, this vessel ventured on the coast prohibited, at the time when it is considered best protected by his Majesty's cruizers.

' "In the river Bonny, also, at the same time, the Portuguese ship, the Donna Eugenia, was captured by the boats of the Tartar and Thistle, with about 90 slaves, having but just commenced her slaving; and the information I had of French vessels having lately left the river, was confirmed.

' "The Constantia, of between 70 and 80 tons, with nearly 250 slaves, was captured by the boats of the Tartar and Thistle, nearly at the same time with those before mentioned; and it may not be improper here to remark, that this vessel appeared, on her condemnation, to belong to Colonel Xavier, the commandant of Prince's Island, and governor in the absence of Gomez." '—

' "*France.*—Vessels under her flag are occasionally to be found on all parts of the coast: her colours being protection every where; but the principal resort of French slavers is in the river Bonny, where they are at most times in numbers; and where, as I was informed, they were establishing factors for the regular supply of their vessels. I had for some weeks on board the Tartar a remarkably intelligent man, acquainted with these parts, who informed me, that within the last twelve months he had seen in the two rivers of Bonny and new Calabar nearly 100 sail of vessels for slaves, and that the greater proportion of these bore the white flag.

' "*Spain.*—Although by her treaty she has relinquished the trade, her subjects infest the coast of Africa still: in the period of the rains they become most active; as then, to afford some protection to the crews of his Majesty's ships from the destructive consequences of the most unhealthful part of the season, these necessarily run to the Cape de Verds or Ascension. And I am quite satisfied, as suits the views of the masters of the Spanish slaving schooners, they at one time act as pirates against all vessels; then under the flag of Artigas or South-American cruizers; and then, when it shall better serve them, return to the practice of slaving: and a vessel under the South-American flag, professing herself a cruizer, may wait a cargo of slaves off the port where they may be collecting, without power on the part of a British officer to prevent her doing so but at the risk of his ruin.

' "*Portugal.*—The Portuguese will cling to the slave-trade as long as it shall be possible: the profits are so large as to induce all risks; and vessels of this nation range every part of the coast, whether north or south, enter every port and creek where a slave is to be purchased; and many small vessels under this flag are still employed in supplying the slave-factories of Prince's Island and St. Thomas.

' "Nothing can more strongly mark the indifference the people who navigate the slave-vessels of Spain and Portugal shew to the miseries they inflict on the unfortunate Africans in their grasp, than the manner in which they crowd them on board their schooners.

' "In two small vessels, the one only 73 and the other about 160 tons, captured nearly at the same time by the boats of the Tartar and Thistle, there were 700 slaves. The height of between-decks of these vessels was less than three feet: the slaves were all fettered in pairs, jammed (for so only can I speak when I describe their situation) one within the feet of the other. Fever, dysentery, and all the train of horrible diseases common to the African climate, (increased by filth so foul, and stench so offensive, as not to be imagined,) had attacked many of them." '

We have accidentally observed one entry in the list of subscribers to the African Institution, which we have great pleasure in recording, for the honor of literature and of that member of its republic whose most liberal donation it announces: viz. 'Prince Hoare, Esq., the proceeds of the Memoirs of the late Granville Sharp, Esq., presented to the Institution by Mr. P. H.; which will amount to upwards of *five hundred pounds*.' Could the spirit of the excellent deceased be acquainted with a proceeding so congenial to all its own acts and feelings "while in the flesh," and so thoroughly appropriate in this instance, we are sure that it would be highly gratified; and so must the mind of every living person who is possessed of humanity, conscientiousness, and right principles.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Κοσμος may be all the world to himself, but what is he to all the world? Really he does not seem to take his opinions from the general feelings of the community, and we suspect that they will be as little inclined to borrow from him. At any rate, *we* cannot coincide with him, nor alter our deliberate judgment to make it agree with his crude and superficial argumentation.

P. W. is very obliging. We will consider the subject of his letter at more leisure, and "speak to it" again, if requisite.

R. T. "struts and frets his hour" with much assumption of self-created dignity: but we shall not take the trouble even to hiss him. He will not appear again before the public, we are convinced.

We shall not overlook the work mentioned by *Amicus*.

⁂ The APPENDIX to the hundredth volume of our New Series is published with this Number, and contains numerous important FOREIGN articles; with the *General Title, Index*, &c. for the volume.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JUNE, 1823.

ART. I. *History of the Peninsular War*, by Robert Southey, Esq. LL.D. Poet Laureate, Honorary Member of the Royal Spanish Academy, of the Royal Spanish Academy of History, of the Royal Institute of the Netherlands, of the Cymrodorion, of the Massachusetts Historical Society, &c. In 3 Vols. Volume the First. 4to. pp. 806. 2*l*. 10*s*. Boards. Murray. 1823.

ACCORDING to generally received notions, a poet-laureate, or indeed any other poet, is the least fitted among the numerous sons of literature to become a strict, unyielding, and veracious historian: the father of the gods, in dividing the empire of the mind under the sway of the offspring of Mnemosyne, having placed the record of immortality in the hand of her eldest born, and concluded his adjudication of the nine sceptres by investing the youngest with that trumpet of which the glorious melody was to inspirit the warrior in his career of honor and patriotism. The function of the historian of heroic actions, and that of the epic poet, though both tending to the same object, and notwithstanding that the Muses are of one family, are therefore very opposite and distinct; and that man must possess a mind far beyond the usual order, who can unite these almost divine qualities. Shakspeare, the greatest of epic poets, in attempting to blend by his magic influence the kingdoms of these sister-queens, overstepped the modesty of nature, and, carrying their ensigns beyond the boundaries of probability, gave them the opportunity of retrieving themselves when nearly conquered, and of regaining their antient, hitherto separated, and almost undisturbed dominion. — Our readers will scarcely inquire why Shakspeare, or why Homer, failed in effecting the union which they intended. The former of these immortal writers has sufficiently explained the reason, though indirectly, in a single sentence. " The poet's eye, in a fine phrenzy rolling, glances from earth to heaven, from heaven to earth, and, as imagination bodies forth the forms of things unknown, he gives to airy nothing a local habitation and a name."

"The Muse of Fire, that *will* ascend unto the brightest heaven of invention," is not, therefore, competent to give laws from the same throne on which the Muse of History is seated, sublimely tracing the progress of events that require her utmost circumspection to develope, and in superintending the record of which not the smallest mixture of invention can be allowed. Still it may be possible, according to the axiom which allows of an exception to an established rule, that an occasion may arise in which a professed poet can appear in the character of an historian, without much disparagement to his fame or talents. Mr. Southey, however, has not such extraordinary claims on our applause that we could, for a moment, embrace the idea that he is destined fully to complete the union which we have mentioned, and which could not be accomplished by those master-spirits, — spirits indeed touched with the never-dying fire. Yet his History of Brazil, and other historical productions, may be brought forwards as indicating the probability of his success in the present undertaking; though it may still be asked on what grounds he has enrolled himself as a candidate for a niche in the shrine of military history? — We conjecture that he yielded the devotion with which he had hitherto worshipped the Muse to whom he had so long sacrificed, in favor of her more staid and sober sister, because he imagined that, having once aberrated from his allegiance to Calliope, he could not better testify the more defined fealty which he owes to his earthly sovereign, than by endeavoring to pourtray the most brilliant æra of his royal master's government; and towards which he conceived he had the more right to indulge his newly created admiration of Clio, because those, to whom the nation had in vain looked for a History of the Peninsular War, — we mean, her Generals and her other warriors, — had almost totally abandoned the attempt. In this view of the case, we can scarcely blame Mr. Southey for endeavoring to perform that which military men had so singularly neglected; and in neglecting which they have left foreigners to suppose that, whatever may be the valor of our armies, our officers are characterized by an incomprehensible paucity of intellect. We shall perhaps, in concluding this article, draw aside the veil which seems to cover this mystery: but, at present, the author before us must meet our attention.

Versed in the Spanish and Portuguese languages, an almost enthusiastic admirer of the antient customs and manners of those nations, well acquainted with their modern systems, and deeply read in their history, Mr. Southey may perhaps contend that few men in England are so capable as he is of directing an inquiry into any topic which concerns the moral or the intellectual characters of those people; and he may add that he has also spent many years in collecting materials and evidences concerning the events of the invasion of the Peninsula: while his literary character and his situation have enabled him to consult books, manuscripts, and documents of every description, to which others would have found it difficult or impossible to get access.

Having thus inquired into the possibility that Mr. Southey should succeed in the good graces of the elder Muse, (provided always that he does not allow the force of memory, a kind mother to all her children, to draw him towards the sister whom he has so long courted,) we shall now investigate the ponderous quarto before us; not dismayed even by the threatening annunciation on its title-page that it will have a couple of similar successors. Bulky as it appears already, it has at least one good quality to recommend it at starting in the race of fame; viz. out of four of the usual component parts of a book, it has three which are remarkable for their brevity; the dedication, the preface, and the introductory paragraphs being all comprized in four pages. To his Majesty, with great propriety, this history is dedicated; and without that extreme adulation which is sometimes manifested in works similarly addressed and patronized. — In the preface, the author explains the causes of his not having sooner presented to the public the mass of materials which he had been engaged in collecting ever since the commencement of the Spanish war, which causes he thus enumerates: First, his wish to have the assistance of the opinions of those who had been engaged in the campaigns, his hope of profiting by their expected publications, and his desire to allow the unerring judgment of time to correct or verify the notions which he had himself formed on the subject. He then states the advantages derived by him from the single volume on the same subject already printed by order of Ferdinand, promises a list of the books of which he has made use, offers a general acknowlegement for the private sources of information which have been most liberally opened to him, and concludes by stating his perfect conviction of the danger to his fame from this undertaking, should he fail to meet those expectations which such a work must naturally excite. — In the introductory paragraphs, which should have been embodied in the preface, Mr. Southey again puts forth reasons for attempting the task; and, having slightly mentioned the causes and effects of the war, he says, 'I have thought that I could not better fulfil my duties to mankind, and especially to my own country, nor more fitly employ the leisure [illegible] with

God has blessed me, nor endeavour in any worthier manner to transmit my name to future ages, than by composing, with all diligence, the faithful history of this momentous struggle.' He then asserts his peculiar qualifications for the office, and observes; 'I cheerfully undertake it, fully assured that the principles herein to be inculcated and exemplified are established upon the best and surest foundation, and that nations can be secure and happy only in proportion as they adhere to them.' — For such confidence, and such an almost dictatorial announcement of his motives and feelings, we were scarcely prepared, after the modest admissions in the preface.

The History itself is divided into fifteen chapters, preceded by a table of contents, in which the subdivisions of each chapter are explained: but we observe that the march of time is occasionally reversed; and this, though very difficult to avoid in such a collection, is a point to which more attention should have been paid. The margins contain the dates, with explanations of the text similar to those in the table of contents, by which the reader is greatly assisted; and some intelligent notes are added, such as from Mr. Southey's acquaintance with the peninsular languages we were led to expect.

As it would be impossible for us to follow so voluminous an exposition step by step, we shall direct our specific notice only to the more important passages; passing over, therefore, the greatest part of the first chapter, which is more devoted to vituperations against the Bonapartean usurpation than to the object of the history. The French system of the period immediately preceding the invasion of Spain was too well known from the works of other writers, to render it necessary for Mr. Southey to employ fifty or sixty pages in explaining that honor is not the principle of a despotism, that religion was wholly overthrown in France by the Revolution, that Talleyrand and Condorcet had different schemes for public education, that the Jacobins were attached to Bonaparte, and that Bonaparte effected wonders by turning the French nation into an army. Neither can we refrain from highly censuring the introduction of various terms and denominations, such as that of *Foxites*, in an opprobrious manner; and the strange volley of abuse which is directed against the persons so termed, in the 55th page. Indeed, we think that the whole of this first chapter should be expunged in a future edition; and, instead of it, a short account of the weakness of Spain, the resources of Bonaparte, and the measures of England, at the beginning of the war, should be inserted at the head of the second division. In a work of that importance to which the present lays claim, the individual

vidual political feelings of its author, whether they are right or otherwise, should certainly never appear.

In chapter ii. the imbecility of Charles IV., the infamy of Godoy, and Bonaparte's well-known schemes concerted with that traitor, are ably but almost unnecessarily detailed; and the regular history of the war does not commence until we have toiled through above seventy pages of the book, filled with matter known to almost every school-boy, and colored by the vivid touching of the author with his own peculiar lights and shades. We cannot but express a wish, now late, perhaps, and at all times unavailing, that in the future volumes the author's political disquisitions may be more sparingly given; the interesting facts of the war being quite sufficient to form even much more bulky tomes, and it not being a *History of the Peninsula during the War* that we are to read, but a History of the *War in the* Peninsula. We therefore advance to that part of the book in which the entry of the French into Lisbon is described; and here the author has given his descriptions in a very masterly manner, and has exposed the pillage and atrocities committed by the notorious Junot and his myrmidons in glowing language. A native of Portugal, who had suffered from these marauders, could not have related their conduct in more expressive terms: but in this place the poet, the worshipper of a sister-muse, unwittingly appears, and gives us a florid account of the superstitious belief of the lower orders of Portugal at that period, in their absurd conviction that Don Sebastian, who was buried some few centuries ago, was about to return from his obscurity and re-assume the sceptre, to the astonishment and annihilation of the invaders. This the Portuguese firmly credited, principally on the authority of a visionary cobler; who receives his share of Mr. Southey's attempt at immortal fame, by having all his nonsense about the five wounds, and two O's, and three O's, and a flag-staff, intermixed with the text of this "*Verdadera Historia,*" as the Spaniards will call it.

The misery of the unfortunate Portuguese was indeed as great as it well could be, even at this early moment. Although the French army reached Lisbon in a state of poverty and wretchedness which an Englishman could hardly conceive, they were not very long in possession of this devoted city before most of the officers were enriched. Cart-loads of plate and treasure reached France; and Junot, according to Mr. Southey, "fitted himself out with the spoils of the royal palaces, the plate was melted, the gold and jewels divided among the Generals, the rich cloths of gold burnt for the metal they contained, and Loison had his shirts made out of the cambric sheets belonging to the royal family. The soldiers pulled down the doors and windows of the great convent of St. Domingos, and sold the iron and wood work by auction.' This lamentable narrative is continued for several pages, and affords, from the manner in which it is given, a just yet melancholy picture of the horrors of war; horrors so considerably increased by the want of all respect, on the part of the aggressors, for the laws of humanity and of nations.

Our readers will remember that these occurrences took place in the spring of 1808: but the third chapter brings us back to the winter of 1807, and returns from Lisbon to Madrid; detailing very largely the events in the latter court before the abdication of Charles IV. It seems in p. 151. by no means to exculpate Ferdinand VII., of pious note, from the charge which his unhappy father publicly brought against him at that time, of not only conspiring to overturn his throne, but of endeavoring to add parricide in the double and direst degree to his disloyalty. 'This mysterious affair,' Mr. Southey asserts, 'has never been clearly elucidated;' and, in his opinion, strong marks of guilt are discernible.

The fourth section is taken up by an explanation of the proceedings when Murat entered Madrid, the inveigling of the royal family to Bayonne, and the subsequent transactions at that place. Extracts from some very curious letters written by the Queen to Murat, with the hope of saving Godoy, are here inserted. In one, she uses these remarkable expressions concerning Ferdinand her son: "My son has a very bad heart; his character is bloody; his heart has no feeling for father or mother." The detention of the royal family, or rather their imprisonment, and the conduct of Napoleon, constitute much of the matter in this division of the work; and a scene between the Emperor and the priest Escoiquez is given, in which Napoleon, endeavoring to make the monk yield to his reasonings, occasionally gave him some very amicable pulls on the lobe of the ear: but, at length, finding that he did not succeed to his wishes, he pulled rather harder, and said, "So then, Canon, you will not enter into my ideas." The Canon replied, "I wish with all my heart that your Majesty would enter into mine, — though it should be at the cost of my ears;" for the Emperor was pulling them somewhat forcibly.

The insurrection of the 2d of May at Madrid is the chief event recorded in the fifth chapter, and is well told. It presents scenes at which humanity shudders, and in which Marshal *Grouchy* figured as chief executioner.

With the sixth chapter the true interest of this publication first commences, when we have already arrived at the 264th page. It describes the rising spirit of the Spaniards, bursting through all constraint at the news of Joseph Bonapartes having declared that he was about to mount the throne of Castile and Leon; — that throne which their national pride placed far above the others of the world. Juntas were now forming in the provinces; the French squadron was captured at Cadiz; deputies were sent to England; the French were massacred in Valencia; and Palafox, escaping from Bayonne, boldly declared war, to the death, against France.

Against the style of this historic composition we have hitherto had no great cause of complaint, although we have occasionally seen some words which surprized us, as coming from the pen of one so versed in the powers of language as its author. The circumstance of Don Solano being protected from the mob by the heroine Mrs. Strange, until she was wounded and unable to assist him, is beautifully told: but the conclusion is marred by the expression, 'took leave of her till eternity.' At page 285., also, in the midst of a very spirited description of the horrors committed by the monk Calvo, the author says that he called on the *religioners* to beware, lest in interfering they shared the fate of the imprisoned French. On again reading the text, we found that 'the *religioners*'* meant a body of priests, who were carrying the host to prevent the 'immitigable' Calvo from murdering his victims.

King Joseph, the intruder, figures in the seventh division; and a considerable portion of the work is taken up with recapitulations of the laws enacted by that usurper, which, though curious, are much out of place.

We are now very fast verging towards the real history of the war itself, which we have hitherto viewed only at a distance; for, in the eighth chapter, the proceedings on this subject in England, the successes of the French in the north of Spain, and their failure in Catalonia, usher in the battle of Rio Leco. 'The intruder' now hastens from Madrid, Dupont's army surrenders, and the French retreat from the capital. All these events are related with becoming zeal and fidelity: but too much time is again wasted in triumphant declamations against the English Opposition and their measures. We gladly hasten over this fresh political chapter, and move forwards with eager anticipations to the ninth, the title of which, ' Siege of Zaragoza,' is more in unison with the intended object of the publication.

---

* This new and very censurable word occurs in several other places.

In entering on this section, from our knowlege of the celebrated and ever-memorable events which it professes to describe, we fully expected that the romantic scenes acted in Zaragoza (or Saragossa) would impress their stamp too strongly on Mr. Southey's ardent fancy, to allow him to relate the facts without poetic ornament. We were not deceived. The legends of Nuestra Señora del Pilar and Santa Engracia, with all their monkish accompaniments, instead of forming a single note, occupy a large portion of the text; while the description of Zaragoza, which if detailed would have formed a most interesting picture, is cut short to make way for a fable. Of the Countess Burita, Augustina Zaragossa, the other heroines, and of the heroes, very little mention is made: but the siege itself is tolerably described, considering that Mr. Southey has no acquaintance with " the art military." We could have wished, however, for farther details of this important siege; — important for many reasons; the least of which is that it shews the determined spirit of Spanish patriotism in this successful combat with a superior enemy for a place which was not even fortified, and in which struggle the inhabitants were therefore aided solely by their own courage and devotion. The best part of this chapter is the description of the dreadful crisis which took place in August, 1808, when the French had made themselves actual masters of half of the city. ' Lefebvre now believed that he had effected his purpose, and required Palafox to surrender, in a note containing only these words: " *Quartel General, Santa Engracia. La capitulacion.*" The heroic Spaniard immediately returned this reply: " *Quartel General, Zaragoza. Guerra al cuchillo.*"* The remainder of this description is too long for us to transcribe, although not nearly so minute as we could desire. Mr. Southey appears, however, of a different opinion, and imagines that he has been explicit enough as to this memorable siege; openly telling us (p. 421.) that ' the history of a battle, however skilfully related, is necessarily uninteresting to all except military men:' — a very odd sort of an axiom for the writer of a history of the ' Peninsular War,' in three quarto volumes, to make the basis of his labours.

Chapter x. retrogrades, and brings the history back once more to May, 1808; developing the occurrences of the insurrection in Portugal. Here the author is much more at home, and flourishes his historic pen very merrily through a tremendously long section, in which we have a very well written but fanciful account of the procession usually made in Lisbon, on the anniversary of the Roman Catholic solemnity called *Corpus Christi.* In adherence to a rule which the author appears to have made peremptory in the execution of this work, he here invariably adopts local usages for names and designations while describing events in Portugal, as he had already done in detailing the actions of the Spaniards. Generally speaking, we approve such a line of conduct: but, in mentioning well-known Catholic ceremonies, saints, names of buildings, miracles, &c., it appears somewhat strange to prefer the barbarous dialect of the Portuguese to the more usual, better known, and even elegant Latin denominations.

---

* " *Head quarters, Santa Engracia. Capitulation.*" — " *Head quarters, Zaragoza. War at the point of the knife.*"

This chapter also presents one of those strange anomalies which we predicted would spread themselves through this work; for Mr. Southey, to use a very common but expressive Irish vulgarism, " lugs in body and sleeves" poor Mr. Wordsworth, as a most eminent authority, to enforce the truths of some severe comments in the foregoing pages on the atrocities committed by the French, under Junot, while they occupied Portugal. The passage quoted by Mr. S. as displaying the most profound feeling and philosophy could not have been worse chosen; the climax involving a complete *morçeau* of the divine bathos, and attempting in the most affected style to impress a truism on our minds.

At page 511. an interesting note is given on the abovementioned atrocities; and, were it not that we are acquainted with persons who have verified these occurrences, we should have had no faith in the statement that men of genius, as some of Napoleon's Generals certainly were, could so far forget the respect due to the Archbishop of Evora and to science, as to have committed sacrilege, and wantonly to deface and destroy his magnificent library, after having solemnly pledged their words that neither he nor his property should be injured. Yet it appears that their commander, Loison, assisted in taking down all the Archbishop's books, (the finest collection in Lusitania,) in hopes of discovering valuables behind them; in which being grievously disappointed, they tore off the gold and silver clasps from the superb bindings of the rarer parts of the collection, and in their rage destroyed a whole pile of manuscripts. They also took every gold and silver coin from his cabinet of medals, every jewel and every bit of the precious metals with which the relics were adorned, or which decorated any thing in his oratory, and Loison himself, to complete his villainy, deliberately pocketed the archiepiscopal ring.

Chap. xi. is set apart for the purpose of describing the first campaign of the British army in Portugal; concluding with an event which we could wish had never occurred to sully the fair annals of British renown, — the convention of Cintra. An abridgment of the life and actions of the Duke of Wellington occurs at the commencement of these details; and the whole of this chapter will be perused by most readers with the attention it deserves: particularly as it contains, notwithstanding Mr. Southey's avowed dislike of battle-pieces, some animated sketches of the actions at Roliça and Vimeiro.* The description of the former is very correct, and very beautiful; and the conflict at Vimeiro is not touched by a less masterly hand. We could almost indeed suppose, on perusing these brilliant descriptions, that Mr. Southey's *métier* had been wrongfully thrust on him, and that he had "been himself a soldier." We quote a paragraph from the pages devoted to the battle of Vimeiro:

> 'The enemy were then charged with the bayonet: this weapon is of French invention, but it was made for British hands. They came to the charge bravely, and stood it for a moment; in that moment their foremost rank fell "like a line of grass before the mowers." This is not the flourish of an historian, seeking artfully to embellish details which no art can render interesting to any but military readers; it is the language of an actor in the scene, who could not call it to mind in after-hours without shuddering; for the very men whose superiority was thus decidedly proved could not speak without involuntary awe of so complete and instantaneous a destruction, produced as it was, not by artillery or explosions, but by their own act and deed, and by the strength of their own hearts and hands. The bodies of about 300 French grenadiers were counted upon the field, who had fallen in this charge. The enemy were pursued to a considerable distance, and six pieces of cannon were taken in the pursuit. General Kellermann made a vigorous attempt, late in the action, to recover these from the 71st and 82d, which were halted in a valley where the guns had been captured. These regiments retired a little way

---

* We recommend the editors of the Gazette to consult Mr. Southey's work, when an intimation is given that a regiment is allowed to use certain words on its colours, significatory of its prowess on the fields of the Peninsula. We do not know whether these words are mis-spelt on all the colours and badges themselves, but they generally are erroneous in the Gazette. On the immense pyramid or obelisk dedicated to Wellington in the Phœnix Park, *Dublin,* these names are in beautiful confusion.

to some advantageous ground, then faced about, fired, and advancing with the bayonet, drove the French back with great loss. Thus were they every where repulsed, though their whole force had been engaged, while not more than half the British army had been brought into action.' (P. 559.)

We pass over the mention duly made of Sir Harry Burrard, Generals Clinton and Murray, and merely relate the memorable expression of the disappointed Sir Arthur Wellesley; who, on being prevented by the united councils of those officers from following up the immense advantage which he had gained, (the command had been taken by Sir H. B. just as the battle of Vimeiro was decided, and Wellesley was about to advance,) said to one of his staff, disguising the bitterness of his feelings under the semblance of levity, "*Well, then, we have now nothing to do but to go and shoot red-legged partridges*" — the game in which the country abounded. In like manner, the tedious discussions on the convention of Cintra must be consigned by us to forgetfulness, but we must remark that they are ably related, and throw much light on this un-English treaty.

Chapter xii. places the reader again on Spanish ground, and relates the operations of the patriotic juntas and armies which at this period were starting into action throughout that enraged country. In this chapter, and in the thirteenth and part of the fourteenth, are embodied a portion of those details which have already been placed before the public by the French General Gouvion de Saint-Cyr*: but we are much surprized at not tracing, in this part of the history, many of those singular instances of individual heroism which brighten the page of Spanish military renown. The efforts of the Catalonian peasantry are indeed stated in mass: but we think that it would have better suited the public taste to have detailed these memorable events, than to have occupied so much time in tracing the quarrels and vacillations of the Spanish commanders and members of government, in that season of danger and popular ferment.

Romana's escape from the territory of Denmark, so well contrived by Sir Richard Keats, is related with great truth and precision; and in this well known story a curious incident is involved, which we shall transcribe for the amusement of our readers.

> 'Two of the regiments (Spanish) which had been quartered in Funen were cavalry, mounted on the fine, black, long-tailed Andalusian horses. It was impracticable to bring off these horses,

---

* See our last Appendix.

about 1100 in number; and Romana was not a man who could order them to be destroyed lest they should fall into the hands of the French: he was fond of horses himself, and knew that every man was attached to the beast which had carried him so far, and so faithfully. Their bridles, therefore, were taken off, and they were turned loose upon the beach. As they moved off, they passed some of the country horses and mares, which were feeding at a little distance. A scene ensued such as probably never before was witnessed. The Spanish horses are not mutilated, and these were sensible that they were no longer under any restraint of human power. A general conflict ensued, in which, retaining the discipline that they had learnt, they charged each other in squadrons of ten or twenty together; then closely engaged, striking with their fore feet, and biting and tearing each other with the most ferocious rage, and trampling over those which were beaten down, till the shore, in the course of a quarter of an hour, was strewn with the dead and disabled. Part of them had been set free on a rising ground at some distance; they no sooner heard the roar of the battle than they came thundering down over the intermediate hedges, and, catching the contagious madness, plunged into the fight with equal fury. Sublime as the scene was, it was too horrible to be long contemplated, and Romana, in mercy, gave orders for destroying them; but it was found too dangerous to attempt this; and after the last boats quitted the beach, the few horses that remained were seen still engaged in the dreadful work of mutual destruction.'

The authority (Sir Richard Keats) for this story is undoubted, but we must leave it to the initiated in zoologic lore to inquire whether this class of animals have, or have not, a natural belligerent propensity; as we do not remember to have noticed a similar fact, even on a much smaller scale. In the vast *pampas* and almost interminable savannahs of America, where myriads of horses roam in their primitive condition, no such event occurs, as far as we have personally observed; yet in these wilds many troops of stranger-horses must continually meet, not in squadrons only, as was the case in the above detail, but in hordes, if we may use the expression.

This detail includes an account of the dangerous mission of the English Catholic priest, Robertson, who was despatched by the British government to communicate with the Marquis Romana in Denmark; and, as in this service no documents could be carried, a single Spanish line was to constitute the messenger's credentials. Romana was extremely well versed in the literature of his native land, and had at a former period engaged the English ambassador in Spain, Mr. Frere, in the perusal of the *Gests* of the renowned Cid, the most curious as well as the most beautiful specimen of *early Spanish* poetry. Having one day called on Mr. Frere during the perusal of this poem, that ambassador appealed to him for the propriety of a slight variation which he contemplated in the reading of this line,

"*Aun vea el hora que vos merezea dos tanto.*"

Struck with the difficulty of making the sense complete with the monosyllable *dos*, which signifies a small coin, or two, Mr. F. proposed that the verb *merezea* should be read *merezeades*, by which the meaning would be evident. Romana instantly assented. Mr. Robertson was therefore instructed, on being introduced to the Marquis, to repeat,

"*Aun vea el hora que vos merezeades tanto.*"

Those readers, who have studied Spanish, will observe how curiously applicable this line was to Romana's actual situation; and they will be pleased to find that, after considerable difficulties, the priest attained his object, and with this simple voucher for his mission effected the full intentions of the cabinet, and saved some thousands of Spaniards from their impending fate.

The description of the national ardor in the attempt to defend Madrid against Napoleon is ably written, and just indignation is heaped on the infamous Morla, who was the successor to Godoy * in the terrible post of the destroyer of his country. Morla declared that Madrid was without resources, and its defence hopeless, 'when threescore thousand men were ready to defend their streets, and doors, and chambers! This would not have been said if Palafox had been in Madrid.'

Chapter xv. and last is appropriated to the account of Sir John Moore's unfortunate campaign. This melancholy subject having been long since discussed, we shall not resume it: but we regret to see that Mr. Southey is by no means just to that meritorious though always unlucky commander, and is disposed to represent in the most favorable colors the exertions and opinions of the British diplomatist, at the expence of those of the British General. Had Sir J. M. followed Mr. Frere's advice, and pushed on to Madrid, his whole army must have been lost. Mr. S., however, agrees with others who, we are aware, regard Sir J. Moore as a martyr to caution, and an extreme distrust of his own superior faculties; and who think that he would have been one of the greatest, if he had not been one of the most circumspect of our Generals.

---

* This infamous character is in Rome, where a friend of ours saw him in the last year, living in splendid extravagance, and still having the finest women in his harem.

'No man,' adds the author, 'was more beloved in private life, nor was there any General in the British army so universally respected. Despondency was the radical weakness of his mind. Personally he was as brave a man as ever met death in the field; but he wanted faith in British courage, and it is faith by which miracles are wrought in war as well as in religion. But let it be ever remembered with gratitude, that, when some of his general officers advised him to conclude the retreat by a capitulation, Sir John Moore preserved the honor of England.'

We have now reached the end of the first portion of this History of the Peninsular War. Had it less of the fanciful in the stories of saints and mysteries; had it dwelt less on political disquisition, or on subjects of which it has depicted only one side, and has therefore delivered a partial judgment; had it been less prolix in its purely historical details, and more bountiful in its relation of the real events of the war which it professes to describe; we should have assigned to it a much more favorable character than we now can. In short, had Mr. Southey kept himself more out of view as a poet and a politician, we should not have continued to regret the supineness of our military men; who have resigned to another the pen which they ought to have wielded during so long an interval of repose.

We cannot, however, close this article without recommending the exceeding patience, the vast fund of knowlege, and the intimate acquaintance with the Lusitanian and Iberian tongues, which the work displays; and we sincerely trust that the forthcoming volumes will leave us no room to suspect that Mr. Southey's defection from the court of Calliope, the queen of his youth, will deteriorate the newly-born affection with which he strives to worship her more grave sister. Let us hope that we may address him in the language of the censor of his great model and prototype Herrera: "*He visto la Historia que ha escrito Roberto Southey, poeta-laureado de su Magestad, y es de las mejores que yo he leydo*, &c. He will pardon us if we add, from our extreme desire that he should better finish what he has ably begun, "*y para que el mundo conozca lo que Ynglaterra ha hecho, en servicio de Dios, y honra desta nacion en aquellos payses, serà muy conveniente, que con brevidad salga a luz, para que todos la puedan ver y gozar, porque ninguno de los que han escrito desta materia, la trata con la puntualidad y la elegancia, que el dicho Roberto Southey.*" *

---

* "I have seen the History which Robert Southey, his Majesty's poet-laureate, has written, and it is one of the best that I have

A series of views in Spain and Portugal, designed to illustrate this publication, has been announced; they are drawn on stone by Mr. W. Westall, from sketches by General Hawker, Mr. Locker, Mr. Heaphy, &c. To this first volume, eight of these drawings are intended to belong; and eight more to each succeeding volume are promised. The price of the views is 18*s.*; and we are sorry that, considering the deliberate manner in which the book has been prepared, they were not made ready to appear with it.

ART. II. *An Appeal to the Religion, Justice, and Humanity of the Inhabitants of the British Empire,* in Behalf of the Negro Slaves in the West Indies. By W. Wilberforce, Esq. M. P. 8vo. pp. 76. Hatchard. 1823.

ART. III. *Negro Slavery;* or, a View of some of the more prominent Features of that State of Society, as it exists in the United States of America and in the Colonies of the West Indies, especially in Jamaica. 8vo. pp. 118. 3*s.* Hatchard, &c.

"THERE is a tide" in the feelings as well as "in the affairs of men," and zeal has its ebb as well as its flow: to continue long in a state of excitement is impossible; and though we may repeat the stimulus, yet, in proportion to the frequency and intenseness of the application, is the degree of languor which inevitably follows. To a fatal inattention to this law of our nature, on the part of the first abolitionists of the Slave-trade, may be ascribed the existence of slavery at the present moment in the West India islands. With the milk of human kindness springing from a perennial fountain in their own warm hearts, and circulating in an even and unfailing current, they mistook a strong but transitory sympathy with the wrongs of the wretched Negro, which they had inspired in others, for a permanent and operative principle of humanity. They placed also too much confidence in the support of some who passed for friends, while, as it turned out, they were too suspicious of others who avowed themselves opponents: they trusted to the hollow eloquence of a "heaven-born states-

---

have read, &c. — In order that the world should know what Englishmen have done for the service of religion &c., in those countries, it will be very desirable that the remainder should be brought to light, and that every body may see and admire it; because none of those authors, who have written of this matter, have treated it with such fidelity and elegance as the said Dr. Southey has manifested."

man," now no more; and, believing him to be sincere in all his professions, they vainly hoped that he would make those exertions for the abolition which in his high commanding station he never made in vain, when any measure was to be carried which he had really at heart. Mr. Fox, however, effected in a few short months what his predecessor, throughout the course of a greater number of years, had failed to accomplish. — Mr. Dundas, on the other hand, the partizan and acknowleged patron of the West India interest, and the most powerful antagonist of the abolitionists in the House of Commons, united with other opponents to charge them with gross inconsistency in not following up their own arguments to a legitimate conclusion. "You maintain," said they, "that it is contrary to the principles of justice and the dictates of humanity to seize innocent men and transport them across the Atlantic, in order that they may be compelled to labor for your advantage: but is it more just or less inhuman to leave the victims of your rapacity to lead a life of slavery, they and their descendants for ever? Why do you not exert yourselves to effect for these objects of your solicitude a deliverance from that bondage which you declare to be unjust and cruel? Why do you not aim at the extinction of slavery?" — Mr. Dundas therefore himself proposed in the year 1792 that, in less than eight years from that time, not only the Slave-trade should cease, but the extinction of slavery itself should commence; and that from that hour every new-born Negro infant should be free, subject to a short apprenticeship at the age of maturity, in order to repay the owner for the expence of maintaining him during his infancy and boyhood.

Why were not these suggestions adopted, bottomed as they were on the soundest political wisdom? Was it because they came from an enemy to the immediate abolition? We perfectly recollect the period when this gradual emancipation was proposed, the quarter from which it came, and the general remark that was made on it, "*Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes.*" Mr. Dundas was a statesman of great endowments, vigorous intellect, and penetrating sagacity: but he was wary, cunning, supple, and suspected. Well may Mr. Wilberforce, in the interesting pamphlet now before us, exclaim; 'Can I here forbear remarking that if the advocates for immediate abolition could have foreseen that the feelings of the House of Commons, then apparently so warmly excited and so resolutely fixed on the instant extinction of the Slave-trade, would so soon subside into a long and melancholy apathy, and had they in consequence acceded to these proposals, the slavery of the West Indies would by this time nearly have expired, and we should be now rejoicing in the delightful change which the mass of our Negro population would have experienced; from a state of ignominious bondage to the condition of a free and happy peasantry.'

Mr. W. has another remark, to which we scarcely know how to accede: 'When the public attention,' says he, 'has been attracted to this subject, it has been unadvisedly turned to particular instances of cruelty, rather than to the system in general, and to those essential and incurable vices which will invariably exist wherever the power of man over man is unlimited.' How are we to prove the essential viciousness and cruelty of the system, without exhibiting particular instances of cruelty and vice? The public sympathy in behalf of the poor African would never have been excited by any vague and general declamation on the horrors of slavery. No one knew better how to touch the chord of human tenderness and sensibility than Laurence Sterne; and in a beautiful little sketch, the subject of which has brought him to our remembrance on this occasion, he says; "I was going to begin with *the millions* of my fellow-creatures born to no inheritance but slavery; but finding, however affecting the picture was, that I could not bring it nearer to me, and that the multitude of sad groupes in it did but distract me, I took *a single* captive, and having first shut him up in his dungeon, I then looked through the twilight of his grated door to take his picture." We can recollect the prodigious impression, or rather the electrical shock, which Mr. Wilberforce himself produced by exhibiting in the House of Commons the section of a slave-ship: it was felt throughout the country; and a shriek of horror and indignation was heard from one end of the kingdom to the other. *Particular instances of cruelty must always be kept before the public eye, or slavery will never be abolished.* The friends of the system will heartily rejoice that any veil is drawn over them, for they dread nothing half so much, or with half so much reason, as the exposure of details.

On this account, we are particularly pleased with the publication of the second of the tracts which we have placed at the head of this article, intitled 'Negro Slavery;' the object of which is to furnish a plain, authentic, and unvarnished picture of Negro slavery, not as it may have existed at some antecedent period of time, but as it prevails at the present moment, both in the United States of America and in the European colonies of the West Indies which have been peopled by imported Africans. An attempt was made, in the course of the recent debate in the House of Commons on Mr. Fowel Buxton's motion for the abolition of slavery, to blunt the edge of this cutting pamphlet, and a charge was made against the writer that he had misquoted one of his authorities: but it failed completely, and his evidence becomes stronger than before in consequence of the frustrated effort to invalidate it. The author, we understand from the remarks of Mr. Brougham, is Mr. Macaulay, "whose name is honoured wherever it is known." This gentleman has travelled far to ascertain, and if possible to ameliorate, the condition of slaves; and for that purpose he has sacrificed his health, and even exposed himself to the horrors of the Middle Passage. The specific charge against him was that of having exaggerated the statement of a most intelligent individual, which charge Mr. Brougham triumphantly rebutted by asserting that the very individual himself corrected the press! (See Debate in the House of Commons, May 15.)

From the pamphlets before us, and from the debate already mentioned, we shall now endeavor, with all practical brevity, to put our readers in possession of the *existing state* of slavery in the West Indies; of the means proposed by Mr. Buxton to be adopted for its total extinction; and of the resolutions which were passed as an *amendment*—if we must use the word, though in a sense very different from its proper and ordinary acceptation—to the original motion.

It is calculated that the British West Indian colonies include about 800,000 slaves, all the absolute property of their masters, bought and sold at their discretion like cattle of the field, or goods, chattels, and hereditaments! The Negroes are a remarkably prolific race, not only in their own country but in the case of domestic slaves even in our sugar-colonies; and the free Negroes and Mulattoes and the Maroons in Jamaica, the Charaibs of St. Vincent, and the Negroes of Bencoolen, are all known to increase their numbers under circumstances far from favorable to population. The Negro-slaves in the United States of America, though situated in a climate far less suited to the Negro constitution than that of the West Indies, (where it is much the same as that of Africa,) also augmented rapidly, while in our own colonies it was declared impossible to keep up their numbers without continual importations. This was a strong presumptive proof, raised into certainty by various concurrent facts, that the decrease mainly arose from excess of labor, aggravated by deficient food, care, and comfort. The same phænomena, Mr. Wilberforce says, 'I fear are still found to exist and to indicate the continuance of the same causes; for unless I am much misinformed, there is still a progressive decrease by mortality in most of our colonies; and if in a smaller ratio than formerly to their whole population,

tion, it is to be remembered that the enormous loss in the seasoning of newly imported slaves now no longer aggravates the sad account.' This, however, is denied: the planters are loud in their own praise, and consider themselves, not the Negroes, as the injured class. They tell us, truly, that they who have derived their property in the West Indies by purchase or inheritance are not responsible for the establishment of slavery: but we do not believe them when they also tell us that the condition of slaves is of late years greatly ameliorated, and that they have done and are always happy to do all in their power to alleviate their situation still more. Even allowing this to be true, however, they have furnished us with a most unanswerable argument for the extinction of slavery altogether; for we shall presently shew that, with all the paternal kindness of the planters towards their Negroes, the latter are in a condition to which no human being ought ever to be subjected, even on conviction of the most enormous crimes.

In the first place, they are bought and sold, claimed as private property, and held in bondage.* Is this nothing? Is it in the nineteenth century of *the Christian æra* that a *right* is asserted to trade in the flesh of man; of God's image, "carved" though it be "in ebony?" Suppose, however, that man has the right to sell himself to servitude, he can have no right to sell either his existing or his future progeny. What constitutes a legal right to property? The justness and legality of the original title. Then how did the slaveholders in the West Indies gain possession of their slaves? Was it by the alluring courtesies of gentleness and kindness, by fair promises and substantial presents to the principals themselves? Have they not rather been obtained by rapine undisguised and fraud the most atrocious? Have not these wretched beings, or their ancestors, from a property in whom the property in themselves is alone pretended to be derived, been torn from their peaceful homes; violently separated from their husbands, wives, parents, children, and friends; barbarously manacled; driven like herds of oxen to the sea-shore;

---

* In the *Morning Chronicle* for April 19. 1823, we observed an advertisement for the sale of slaves, in these words: "To be sold by auction, two large and valuable estates called Saxham and Caldwell, &c. &c.: a mansion-house calculated for the residence of the proprietor and family, together with a well-disposed gang of three hundred and forty Negroes, two hundred mules, and other cattle." The sale was to take place, and probably did take place, at Garraway's Coffee-house, London. "The Morning Chronicle" should have refused to insert this advertisement. There are papers which it could not have disgraced.

and pressed together into pestilential holds? England has abolished her Slave-trade, that is, the importation of fresh Negroes from Africa, but she has not emancipated her slaves. In the eloquent language of a true friend to human liberty and happiness, she has performed one half of her work, while the other remains not only not effected but not attempted: — she has washed one of her hands from this pollution of iniquity, but the other is immersed in it as deeply as ever. It is her unquestionable duty, and her interest, to emancipate her slaves, to loosen the heavy burden, to cleave asunder the iron yoke, and to bid her captives go free.

"There are persons," said Mr. Buxton in his speech, "whose notions of justice and property are so confused that they appear to consider that the planter has something like an honest and inherent title to the body of the slave. I wish for a moment to enquire into the validity of this title. Each claims it as his right. Here is a certain valuable commodity, and here are two competitors for its possession, the one a white, the other a black man. What is the nature of this commodity? *The body of the black man!* What is the claim of the black man to his own body? It is the most unexceptionable of all titles — it is the gift of God! He derived it from his father. This title is unexceptionable in every point of view. It is impossible to allege either fraud or force; and makes out, at any rate, a pretty good *primâ facie* case which, if disputed, it devolves on the other party to shew a better. The planter's best title is, that he bought it at a public market of a stranger. How did that stranger come by it? He bought it of a MAN-MERCHANT. And how did the Man-merchant derive his right? HE STOLE IT. The foundation of his right was the committal of one of the greatest of all abominations, so considered by every nation on the face of the earth; and yet this title, so obtained, is to be put in competition with one that is unimpeachable and unimpeached!"

Let us now consider what is the actual condition of the Negroes, what is their treatment, and what are their physical sufferings, and what is their moral and intellectual degradation? In the contemplation of the law, as we have just observed, they are not considered as persons but as *things*, mere chattels, liable to be seized and sold by creditors and executors in payment of their owners' debts, and even separately from the estates on which they are settled. By this system, says Mr. Wilberforce, the most meritorious slave who may have accumulated a little peculium, who by long and faithful services may have endeared himself to his proprietor or manager, is liable at once to be torn for ever from his family and home, and to be sent to serve a new master, perhaps in a distant island, for the rest of his life.

Another degradation by law, most perniciously affecting their whole civil condition, is that the evidence of slaves is still inadmissible against any free person. The late Mr. Otley, Chief Justice of St. Vincent's, himself a planter, candidly stated before the Slave-trade Committee that, "as the evidence of slaves is never admitted against white men, the difficulty of legally establishing the facts is so great that white men are, in a manner, put beyond the reach of the law." Their evidence is not only inadmissible in cases implicating their owner merely, but in all cases whatsoever, whether civil or criminal, that affect persons of free condition.

'Any white man may inflict not only thirty-nine but three hundred and ninety lashes on a slave; he may even murder the slave outright; yet, if the crime be not committed in the presence of other persons of free condition, willing to testify against him, he is secure from punishment. A thousand other slaves may have been present, but not one of the thousand would be permitted to offer his testimony in a court of justice against the criminal. The jury would not even be allowed the opportunity of judging of the credibility of his evidence. The mere circumstance of his being a slave would be at once an insuperable bar to his statements being heard. His evidence would be wholly inadmissible. It is equally so in all civil causes, even when the suit involves a question of personal freedom.

'It is unnecessary to point out the enormities which must result from such a system. About 345,000 inhabitants of Jamaica, for example, are thus shut out, by the operation of this universal principle of colonial law, from any fair hope of obtaining legal redress for any injury, whether civil or criminal, which they may sustain from any one of the privileged order, amounting, perhaps, to a fifteenth or twentieth part of the whole population; while the persons composing that order have this farther pledge of immunity, that it is their common interest to discourage and defeat any attempts, on the part of the slaves, to obtain the efficient protection of magistrates or of courts of justice.' (Macaulay, p. 106.)

The next evil is the *driving* system. Can any thing be more brutalizing and horrible than that slaves should still be driven to their work by the terror of the cart-whip, like horses in a team? Labor is extracted from the Negro not according to his strength, not in the degree which his interest may prompt, but in the measure which his overseer may choose to exact by the impending lash, and the actual infliction of corporal punishment. When employed in the field, for example, in turning up the ground with hoes into parallel trenches for the reception of the cane-plants, the slaves of both sexes, from twenty to fourscore years old, are drawn out in a line like troops on a parade, each with a hoe; and close to them, in the rear, are stationed a number of drivers, proportioned to the gang, each with a long, thick, and strongly plaited whip, the report of which is as loud, and the lash as severe, as the barbarous whips in common use with our waggoners. The trenches are rectilinear; and the whole line of *holers* are made to advance together, so that every hole or section of the trench is finished in equal time with the rest. It is the business of the driver to watch that all in the line, male and female, young and old, strong and feeble, work as nearly as possible in equal time and with equal effect; and no breathing time, no resting on the hoe, no pause of languor, to be repaid by brisker action on return to work, can be allowed to individuals. All must work or pause together. This is effected by the terror of the whip! Yet, said Mr. Baring, "the West India slave was not the object which, in looking round the globe, would first excite his commiseration."

'The whip,' says Mr. Wilberforce, 'is itself a dreadful instrument of punishment; and the mode of inflicting that punishment shockingly indecent and degrading. The drivers themselves, commonly, or rather always slaves, are usually the strongest and stoutest of the Negroes; and though they are forbidden to give more than a few lashes at a time, as the immediate chastisement of faults committed at their work, yet the power over the slaves which they thus possess unavoidably invests them with a truly formidable tyranny, the consequences of which, to the unfortunate subjects of it, are often in the highest degree oppressive and pernicious. No one who reflects on the subject can be at a loss to anticipate one odious use which is too commonly made of this despotism, in extorting, from the fears of the young females who are subject to it, compliances with the licentious desires of the drivers, which they might otherwise have refused from attachment to another, if not from moral feelings and restraints. It is idle and insulting to talk of improving the condition of these poor beings, as rational and moral agents, while they are treated in a manner which precludes self-government, and annihilates all human motives but such as we impose on a maniac, or on a hardened and incorrigible convict.

'Another abuse which shews, like the rest, the extreme degradation of the Negro race, and the apathy which it creates in their masters, is the cruel, and, at least in the case of the female sex, highly indecent punishments inflicted in public, and in the face of day, often in the presence of the gang, or of the whole assembled population of an estate. From their low and ignominious condition it doubtless proceeds, that they are in some degree regarded as below the necessity of observing towards others the proper decencies of life, or of having those decencies observed by others towards them.' (P. 15.)

Mr. Wilberforce generalizes, and his pamphlet is excellent *as a piece of reasoning;* while Mr. Macaulay particularizes, and his pamphlet is very valuable for the documentary evidence and facts which it contains. On the ferociousness and indecency of the punishments, we extract the following account from the latter: (P. 60.)

> ‘ The driver, who is generally a black man, has the power not only of stimulating the slaves under him to exertion, by the application of the whip to their bodies while they are proceeding with their work, but, when he considers any of them to have committed a fault deserving of a more serious notice, he has the power also of prostrating them (women as well as men) on the ground, causing them to be held firmly down, by other Negroes, who grasp the hands and legs of their prostrate companion, when he may inflict upon the bare posteriors such a number of lashes as he may deem the fault to have merited; the whole number which he may inflict at one time, without the presence of the overseer, being, by the Slave Act of 1816, limited to ten. One of the faults which the driver most frequently punishes in this way, is that of coming too late to the field, either in the morning or after dinner. Those who arrive after the fixed time are pretty sure to get a few, perhaps, five or six lashes. Mr. Cooper, on one occasion, saw three or four old women come too late: they knew they were to be whipped, and as soon as they came up, threw themselves down on the ground to receive the lashes: some of them received four, others six lashes. These minor punishments, Mr. Cooper says, are very frequent. He believes that seldom a day passes without some occurring; and he has heard of as many as sixty Negroes being flogged in one morning, for being late.
>
> ‘ More serious punishments are only inflicted by the authority of the overseer; and the mode of their infliction is usually the same as has been already described. Whether the offender be male or female, precisely the same course is pursued. The posteriors are made bare, and the offender is extended prone on the ground, the hands and feet being firmly held and extended by other slaves; when the driver, with his long and heavy whip, inflicts, under the eye of the overseer, the number of lashes which he may order; each lash, when the skin is tender and not rendered callous by repeated punishments, making an incision on the buttocks, and thirty or forty such lashes leaving them in a dreadfully lacerated and bleeding state. Even those that have become the most callous cannot long resist the force of this terrible instrument, when applied by a skilful hand, but become also raw and bloody; indeed, no strength of skin can withstand its reiterated application.’

It is to be observed that the driver has no written rules to guide his conduct, and exercises his power discretionally, and without any sort of trial: but the slave, it seems, has a
eal, *after he has received punishment*, and may
his overseer to the attorney of the estate, or to a

magistrate. Such complaint, however, often does him more harm than good. An overseer told Mr. Cooper * that a woman had disobeyed his orders, and he put her in the stocks by way of punishment. She complained to the attorney of this proceeding, who ordered her to be thrown down on the ground in the customary manner, and thirty-nine lashes were inflicted: after which she was raised up, immediately thrown down again, and received thirty-nine lashes more. The law professes to limit the number of lashes which shall be given at any one time to thirty-nine: but the evidence of a Negro being inadmissible against a white, any number of lashes may be inflicted, in the presence of a thousand slaves, with impunity. The limitation on the statute-book is therefore a mockery. It is common for Negroes who have been guilty of what is deemed a serious offence, to be worked all day in the field, and during the intervals of labor, as well as during the whole night, to be confined with their feet in the stocks. A runaway Negro, on being caught, was flogged as severely as he could bear, and then made to work in the field; during the interval of dinner-time he was regularly placed in the stocks, and in them also he was confined the whole night. When his lacerations were sufficiently healed, he was flogged a second time. One of the book-keepers told Mr. Cooper that, while the sores were still unhealed, maggots had bred in the lacerated flesh; and when Mr. Cooper mentioned the circumstance to the attorney, the latter did not manifest any surprize.

The island of St. Helena, which interests the naturalist by the curious geological phænomena there presented for his examination, is dear also to the philanthropist, as being the scene of a prosperous experiment, which utterly disproves the hardy and unfeeling assertion that the labor of the Negro must be enforced by the lash, and can only be secured in the mute and sullen obedience of slavery. Sir George Staunton, who stopped there on his return from China, mentions this fact, to the honor of the East India Company. (See his account of Lord Macartney's Embassy, vol. ii. p. 606.) St. Helena is chiefly cultivated by blacks, whose ancestors were brought thither as slaves by the first European settlers, the Portuguese; and they continued under the unlimited dominion of their owners till, in consequence of a representation made to

---

* The Rev. Thomas Cooper; who is now preparing for the press a more complete detail of his observations on Negro Slavery during his residence in the West Indies. His "evidence" in Mr. Macaulay's pamphlet is given to the public with his permission, and it has already been stated that he revised the press.

the English East India Company, many regulations were enacted in their favor, and they were placed under the immediate protection of the magistracy. Before these regulations were adopted, an average annual loss of ten slaves in the hundred had occurred: but, after that time, the race considerably increased, in consequence of the comfort and security which they enjoyed. Besides the blacks in a state of slavery, there are many who are free: but the labor of these latter diminishing the value of the former, the free blacks became obnoxious to the slave-holders, who had influence enough with a grand jury to represent them as being without visible means of gaining a livelihood, and consequently liable to become burdensome to the community. An examination was accordingly instituted, when it appeared that *all* the free blacks of sufficient age to work were actually employed at the time; and that not one of them had been tried for any crime for several preceding years, nor had any one of them been chargeable on the parish. The Company accordingly placed them nearly on a footing with the other free inhabitants, and the importation of slaves into the island was prohibited long before the trade was abolished by the British legislature.*

It is a farther proof of the unmitigated degradation of the African race in Jamaica and our other colonies, that a black skin, or even the visible tinge of African descent in the countenance, furnishes a legal presumption of slavery, and exposes the unhappy individual, if he cannot repel that presumption by legal evidence, to all the pains and penalties of a cruel and interminable bondage. This is a very dreadful consideration. A Negro may have been emancipated by purchase, by grant, or by will; he may be the offspring of a free black, or may have migrated from some other country: but this is not enough: even though unclaimed, though *unbranded*, (for slaves are commonly marked on their backs with the owner's name, like sheep or cattle, by a hot iron,) and although no marks of flogging appear on his back, still his color is a presumption against him, and the burden of proof lies on the accused, who must prove the negative; and in making this proof that he is a free man, by another iniquitous principle of law the testimony of any of the black or colored slave-population, to whom alone his right to freedom and the grounds of it may probably be known, is shut out against him. The loss of his deed of enfranchisement, by any accident, would expose him to be seized as a runaway, and sold again into perpetual bondage. These are no fanciful cases: the Jamaica Royal Gazette exhibits advertisements every week, announcing the names and descriptions of Negroes taken and confined as suspected runaways, they declaring themselves free. Mr. Macaulay has given a great many in his pamphlet, of which we copy one.

---

* See an unassuming and valuable little tract, intitled "A Description of the Island of St. Helena," &c. published in 1804: or our account *of it, vol.* xlviii. N. S. p. 310.

' " *Westmorland Workhouse*, *Aug*. 27. 1822.

' " Notice is hereby given, that unless the under-mentioned *slave* is taken out of this workhouse prior to the 22d October next, he will on that day, between the hours of ten and twelve in the forenoon, be put up to public sale, and sold to the best bidder, agreeably to the workhouse law now in force, for payment of his fees: viz. John Williams, five feet nine inches and a half high, *no brand-mark;* says he is a Maroon of Charles-Town, whereof John March, Esq., is superintendant, but which is *supposed to be false,* as he is apparently a foreigner by his speech. He had for some time been seen skulking near Glasgow estate, in this parish." '

Here it is to be remarked that persons who take up runaways, and commit them to a workhouse, are intitled to a reward; so that any needy ruffian, as Mr. M. says, to whom a few dollars are an object, may first rob a poor wretch of his document of freedom, and then commit him as a runaway. By the relentless operation of the " Workhouse Law," he must then labor for months, in chains and under the lash, for the benefit of the public; after which he is put up to auction and sold, the proceeds being first applied to the payment of fees, and the residue, if any, appropriated by his Majesty's treasury. It is perhaps superfluous to add that, notwithstanding the extreme heat of the climate, slaves are kept, from early life until the powers of nature are finally exhausted, to hard and unremitted labor, always under peril of the lash. In the season of crop, or sugar-harvest, which lasts five months in the year, their labor is continued not only throughout the day (with some intermissions) but during half of the night, or during the whole of every other night. Being paid no wages for their hard work, they are obliged to labor for their own maintenance during those scanty leisure-days which ought to be devoted to recreation and religious instruction, especially on Sundays. In consequence of this cruel provision, and of their being forced to go to markets, often at a great distance, on the Sunday, it " shines no Sabbath-day to them," but is a day of worldly occupation and bodily exertion. Sunday is not only a market-day in Jamaica, but for *Negroes it is their only market-day:* it is then that they have it is one of the severest imputations which can be cast on the institution of slavery, that it lowers the man subjected to it; that it degrades his character, that it destroys all his moral energy, This, its severest imputation, is at the same time its only protection. Slavery renders a man too bad to be suddenly converted into a free agent. Thus, we are foiled by the very wickedness of the system against which we are at war. We are under the necessity of arguing in this vicious circle: to keep a man in slavery is undoubtedly a crime, but slavery so pollutes the individual exposed to it, that we can get rid of the crime only by allowing the recurrence of an evil of still greater magnitude. They say that slavery brutalizes the man, and then urge that very brutality as a reason for keeping him in slavery."

Feeling, then, the force of this argument, revolting and shameful as it is, Mr. Buxton, in frankly avowing that the object, at which he and all those aim who are anxious to vindicate the dignity of human nature, is nothing less than the utter extinction of slavery in the whole of the British dominions, adds at the same time that he means not a rapid or sudden extinction of slavery, but merely the adoption of such measures as may qualify the Negroes for the eventual enjoyment, by slow degrees, of rational freedom.

"We mean," says he, "nothing rash, nothing rapid, nothing intemperate; if we succeed to the utmost of my ardent wishes, still, no man will be able to say, I myself shall not be able to say, at what precise time slavery will be entirely abolished. On the contrary, by our plan, slavery will never be exterminated, or cut down. It will gradually subside — it will decline, it will die away, it will sink and be forgotten. It will not be suddenly destroyed in its full strength and vigor, but fall by natural decay and, if possible, imperceptibly. We mean to say, no more slaves shall be made — no more children shall be made slaves. How will this principle act? At the present moment there is a certain number: in the next year that number will be somewhat reduced. In ten years it will be considerably reduced. In twenty or thirty years, all the young, the vigorous, and the rising generation will be free, and only the aged and decrepid will remain in slavery. Every succeeding year will add to the number of the free, and diminish the number of the enslaved, until at length slavery will *go out* and be forgotten. This is no idle theory and speculation: it has already taken place in the world. Thirty years ago New York was a slave state, liable to all the evils, and subject to all the convulsions to which slavery inevitably exposes every country in which it exists. The very principle which I have just described was, however, adopted in New York. What was its operation? Without a single convulsion, without the slightest riot, without the most trifling inconvenience, slavery has entirely gone out and expired in that state. This is the fact. Slavery has burnt down in the socket and completely melted in the state of New York: the same has been the case in New Jersey, in Philadelphia, and in other of the American states. The change in all has been gradual and imperceptible; without noise, without turbulence, without convulsion, in all those states it has quietly gone out." . . . "There are other parts of the world where this principle is in present operation, and where slavery is gradually working itself out. We say that it acts quietly, and without danger, or disturbance. Our antagonists declare that it is full of noise, turbulence, and rebellion. I leave the arbitrament between us to this issue — do they know in what part of the British dominions the principle which they characterize as tending to noise, turbulence, and rebellion is at this moment operating? It is clear, if they do not know, that their ignorance confirms my statement of our principle: this principle has been in active operation in Ceylon ever since the year 1816 under Sir Alexander Johnson, and produced no ill effects whatever; the same thing has occurred at Bencoolen, and most decisively at St. Helena, originating under the government of Sir Hudson Lowe."

As the operation of this principle, however, is slow, and numerous wretched beings must remain in slavery for many years to come, it is proposed so to assuage their sufferings, so to protect them from every species of cruelty, so to instruct them, and so to improve their situation generally, that they may in some degree rise from the prostration in which they have so long been kept. The following extract from a letter addressed by Mr. Buxton to Earl Bathurst, on the 15th of April last, contains an explicit statement of the views which that gentleman and his fellow-laborers in this work of humanity entertain;

"The subject divides itself into two, the condition of the existing slaves and the condition of their children. With regard to the former, I wish the following improvements, —

"1. That slaves should be attached to the island, and, under modifications, to the soil.

"2. That they cease to be chattels in the eye of the law.

"3. That their testimony be received, *quantum valeat.*

"4. That when any one lays in his claim to the services of a Negro, the *onus* should rest on the claimant.

"5. That obstructions to manumission should be removed.

"6. That the provisions of the Spanish law (being by competent authority the value of the slave, and allowing him to purchase a day at a time,) should be introduced.*

---

* The following note will explain Mr. Buxton's meaning; we take it from Mr. Macaulay's pamphlet, p. 109.: 'In the Spanish American possessions it has always been the established practice to encourage manumissions. A slave had a right by law to his freedom, as soon as he could repay to his master the sum he had cost. In order to enable the slave to do this, he was not only *allowed the* undisturbed enjoyment of the Sabbath, either for rest

"7. That no governor, judge, or attorney-general should be a slave-owner.

"8. That an *effectual* provision shall be made for the religious instruction of slaves.

"9. That marriage should be enforced and sanctioned.

"10. That the Sunday should be devoted by the slave *to repose and religions instruction;* and that other time should be allotted for the cultivation of his provision-grounds.

"11. That some (but what I cannot say) measures should be taken to restrain the authority of the master in punishing his *untried* slave, and that some substitute should be found for the driving system.

"These are the proposed qualifications of the existing slavery, but I am far more anxiously bent upon the extinction of slavery

---

rest or for religious purposes, or for his own emolument, as he might like best, but he was allowed also one day in the week for the cultivation of his provision-grounds; his master being entitled to the labour of the other five. As soon, however, as the slave, by his industry and frugality, had accumulated the fifth part of his value, it was usual for the master, on being paid that amount, to relinquish to the slave another day of the week, and so on until he had repaid the whole of his original cost, and thus became altogether free. He continued, however, in some cases, during the days which were his own, and even after his complete emancipation, to labour for hire in his master's service. By this process, not only was the master's capital replaced without loss, but a peasantry was formed around him which had learned by experience the happy effects of industry and frugality, and were therefore industrious and provident. Notwithstanding this liberal policy, the enfranchised slaves have never been known in the Spanish possessions to rise against their former masters, or to excite those who were still slaves to seek any other method of deliverance than they themselves had pursued; whilst they formed, by their number and hardihood, a valuable means of defence from foreign aggression. In consequence of this admirable system, the whole Negro population of the Spanish possessions were so rapidly approximating to emancipation, that about the year 1790, the number of free blacks and people of colour somewhat exceeded, in all of them, the number of slaves. Since that time, in Cuba alone, in consequence of the immense importations from Africa into that island, has this proportion been diminished; but even there the free black and coloured population amounts to from a third to a half of the number of the slaves. In the other trans-Atlantic possessions of Spain, their number has gone on progressively increasing, until now slavery can hardly be said to have an existence there. And this happy consummation has been effected without any commotion, and with the ready concurrence of the master, who has not only not been a loser, but a gainer, by the change. How opprobrious to Great Britain is the contrast which this system exhibits to that of our colonies!'

altogether, by rendering all the Negro children, born after a certain day, free. For them it will be necessary to provide education.

"God grant that his Majesty's ministers may be disposed to accomplish these objects, or to permit others to accomplish them!"

Such were the means proposed by Mr. Buxton for the alleviation of slavery, and as preparatory to its extinction; and he concluded his speech by moving, "That the state of slavery is repugnant to the principles of the British constitution and of the Christian religion, and that it ought to be abolished *gradually* throughout the British colonies, with as much expedition as may be found consistent with a regard to the well-being of the parties concerned."

This motion, temperate as words could make it, was evaded and parried by Mr. Canning with much less than his usual dexterity. Let us hope that he did not wish to give it a negative, but was compelled to stifle his better feelings, and driven by some powerful West Indian interests to make an aukward and reluctant evasion. He, who is one of the first orators in the House, and the acutest rhetorician, had not the shadow of an argument to urge in reply: his failure was truly remarkable — ominous, shall we say? It is not our duty, however, to undertake to analyze his speech, or detect the sophistry which denied the broad proposition that slavery is abhorrent from the principles and spirit of the Christian religion, and at the same instant would not affirm that it is consonant with either; which acknowleged that the Christian religion "is hostile *in the abstract* to the tyranny of man," but in the same sentence denied that it is so "*for any practical purposes.*" Neither shall we animadvert on the disingenuous parliamentary stratagem, which was practised on this occasion, of imputing to an opponent, in reply, measures which he had never contemplated, and which he had even disavowed.* We must content ourselves with giving the resolutions which were proposed as an amendment, and carried without a division, on the motion of Mr. Canning:

---

* It was imputed to Mr. Buxton, or rather insinuated, that the measures which he proposed would affect the pecuniary interests of the planters, and change the nature of their property without giving them compensation; although in his opening speech he had distinctly declared that they were intitled to such compensation. It was also shamefully imputed to him that he wished to name a particular day for the final extinction of slavery, although he openly stated that, according to his measures, "no man, not himself, would be able to say at what precise time slavery would be entirely abolished!"

"1. That it is expedient to adopt effectual and decisive measures for meliorating the condition of the slave-population in his Majesty's dominions.

"2. That through a determined and persevering, but at the same time judicious and temperate enforcement of such measures, this House looks forward to a progressive improvement in the character of the slave-population, such as may prepare them for a participation in those civil rights and privileges which are enjoyed by other classes of his Majesty's subjects.

"3. That this House is anxious for the accomplishment of that purpose, at the earliest period which shall be compatible with the well-being of the slaves themselves, with the safety of the colonies, and with a fair and equitable consideration of the interests of private property.

"4. That these resolutions be laid before his Majesty."

These resolutions were passed, with an evident and avowed suspicion on the part of the abolitionists that they were delusive, and would not lead to the consummation so devoutly wished:—but Mr. Canning stated that the British government "had every reason to expect from the colonial legislature the fullest co-operation." Yes: we know what the co-operation of colonial legislatures is. Sir George Prevost and other witnesses have openly told us, that "*with much seeming sacrifice of interest, acts for the protection and better government of slaves are passed, in order to avert the interference of the mother-country in the management of them.*" The offer of this pretended co-operation is of itself quite ground enough for suspicion. Repeated and repeated experience has proved that from West Indian legislatures, where the subject of slavery is concerned, we shall have an outward and nominal acquiescence, combined with a real and effectual opposition or evasion. Let the friends of the poor blacks be on their utmost guard: for, unless "vigilance" be their watch-word, they will be cajoled, thwarted, and ridiculed. Argus had a hundred eyes, and never suffered more than two of them to be closed at once, the others all keeping watch till their turns came to take repose*: but Argus himself was lulled to sleep by the soft music of a shepherd's pipe, and a long story told by Mercury in disguise,—who immediately cut off his head. Let the abolitionists remember this, and keep *all* their eyes open; listening not to musical pipes or long stories, *told by some subtle Mercury in disguise*, for the purpose of first lulling them to sleep and then destroying them.

---

* "*Centum luminibus cinctum caput Argus habebat,*
Indè suis vicibus capiebant bina quietem:
Cætera servabant, atque in statione manebant."

Art. IV. *Vestiges of Ancient Manners and Customs, discoverable in Modern Italy and Sicily.* By the Rev. John James Blunt, Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 9s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1823.

Those who have taken a comprehensive survey of the civil history of man, in different periods and countries, have been frequently struck with certain manners and usages, which have for ages stood their ground amid every fluctuation of fashion and vicissitude of opinion; — certain moral lineaments in the face of human society, which, like some features of physiognomy, are not effaced by time, by descent, or by transmission. Not merely the observances of religion, which, taking their rise from the inward emotions of our nature, must naturally be the most durable in every nation, but the games and pastimes which amused the younger days of the Scipios and the Gracchi, have descended down to their modern posterity, and may be traced almost among every people who were colonized or conquered by those sovereigns of the universe. The game of the Roman school-boys, for instance,

> —— "*at pueri ludentes, Rex eris, aiunt,*"

still exists among ourselves, and as entirely uninterpolated as it was in the days of Horace. The causes, which have embalmed in astonishing freshness such numbers of the lighter customs, and have saved them from the wreck in which so many graver institutions and so large a mass of monument and tradition have altogether perished, would be a curious question of literary research. *We* are not at leisure to discuss it: but the fact is indisputable; and it is one of the links of that mighty and mysterious chain which holds together the successive generations of the world, connecting the youth of nations with their old age, and preserving through the revolutions of centuries a sort of family-likeness among the several great classes and subdivisions of mankind.

Such resemblances of antient and modern manners are no where more observable than in antient and modern Italy; and they have often been noticed by travellers, particularly Addison, and Dr. Middleton in his celebrated letter from Rome. Still the subject is far from being exhausted; and, while Herculaneum and Pompeii are yet teeming with discoveries, it may be said to be inexhaustible. Dr. Middleton's tract was written for a polemical rather than a literary purpose; being intended as an attack on the corruptions of the Romish church, by shewing the points of contact in which it approximated to the Pagan superstitions. The religion of

Italy and Sicily forms also a prominent part in Mr. Blunt's elegant and ingenious dissertation; for so intimately are the rites of religion allied to the events of private life, that it would not have been possible to have passed them over: but Mr. B. has omitted the coincidences already specified by Middleton, except in those cases in which farther illustration was required. In his sensible and well-written preface, and in a strain of Christian tolerance which cannot be too emphatically commended, he disclaims, however, the controversial spirit of the ingenious author of the "Life of Cicero;" — a spirit which has deformed one of the acutest pieces of writing extant in our language, by an asperity and virulence that were equally unworthy of the divine and the scholar.

> 'My present aim,' observes the author, 'is perfectly distinct from his. I mean no attack upon that church; and if I were to attack it, I should do so on more general, and, as I conceive, stronger grounds. I have lived much amongst its members, and have experienced from them many personal civilities. That their faith is erroneous, of course I believe; but I believe that the faith of him who would oppose it with uncharitable bitterness and invective is no less so. In tracing, however, the vestiges of a classical age which still exist in Italy and Sicily, it is impossible not frequently to refer to the rites and ceremonies of paganism, or to avoid remarking the close connexion which they often have with those at present in use. Many such customs are innocent in themselves, and therefore may be retained by the church of Italy without censure. Some few are more than innocent, they are meritorious, and therefore may be retained with praise. But others, it must be confessed, and those no small class either, are unquestionably superstitious and idolatrous, and therefore ought to be abolished. Of this the *enlightened* Romanist himself is no less conscious than those who hold the reformed faith; for he cannot defend, nor do I think he would be desirous of attempting it, the gross abuses which fraud or credulity or inveterate custom has engrafted upon the fundamental tenets of his church. Many of these abuses, however, it was necessary to introduce in order to complete my picture; nor had I any reason for passing over unnoticed objects which are familiar to all who travel through Italy. Where I have discovered then any points of conformity between the religion of ancient and modern Rome, I have fearlessly mentioned them, as I would mention any points of conformity between the houses or streets; neither have I denied myself the full liberty of expressing my own opinion upon their character and propriety.'

It is lamentable to perceive how much the influences of Christianity, — that revelation of the knowlege of the only true God, — are counteracted in Italy and Sicily by the tendency to polytheism which is manifested in saint-worship. Of this unhappy system, the general effects have been to degrade the worship of the Deity, to swell the calendar with saints, to instigate pilgrimages, to clothe the altars with votive tablets, and to reduce Christianity to a mere emblem of paganism; — in one word, to render her rites the pity of the wise and good, and the scoff and laughter of the profane.

If the saints furnish by their multitude an obvious parallel to the old deities, their reputed lives supply another equally striking.

'When I observed,' says Mr. B., 'such a preamble to a prayer as this, printed and publicly suspended in a Christian church, "O most glorious Virgin, Sa. Rosolia, who, fired by the love of thy heavenly spouse (Christ), abandonedst the comforts of thy father's house, and the pleasures of a court, to live with him in the narrow cavern of Quisquilina, and the savage den of Monte Pellegrino," &c.: when I read such verses as these upon the same tablet,

'SCENE. — *The Cavern of Monte Pellegrino.*

'*Locum intras tenebrosum;*
Nec te piget luminosum
Vultum solis non videre;
Nempe Christo vis placere.
In hâc cellâ Peregrina,
Terram calcas, et divina
Meditando, supernorum
Socia fis habitatorum.
Nunc te liliis, nunc te rosis,
Sponsus ornat odorosis;
Nunc apostolos miraris,
Nunc Mariam contemplaris, &c.

'In Pellegrino's gloomy cell,
For Christ thou bid'st the world farewell;
And musing there in heavenly love,
Hold'st converse with the powers above.
To deck that brow thy spouse bestows
A lily here, and there a rose;
While stand confess'd before thy view,
Our Lady and the apostles too.

When in a consecrated room annexed to the chapel of S. Catharine at Sienna, I found it recorded upon a similar tablet, "that in that house S. Catharine one day felt an amorous longing (*amorose smanie*) to see her divine husband; that two very beautiful angels appeared to her to comfort her; but that she turning to them said, 'It is not you I want, but him who created you,'" &c.: when in the same manner I saw it proclaimed, "that under that roof she had been married to Jesus Christ on the day of the carnival, in the presence of the most blessed Virgin Mary, of King David, who played upon the harp, of St. John the Evangelist, of St. Paul and St. Dominic:" when on entering the church of Sa. Rosa at Viterbo, I discovered an altar adorned with such blasphemy as the following:

‘ *Quis tamen laudes recolat, quis hujus*
Virginis dotes, sibi quam pudicis
Nuptiis junctam voluit superni
Numen Olympi?

‘ But ah! what powers of tongue can paint,
The virtues of this virgin saint?
For whom, a chaste, celestial bride,
The ruler of Olympus sigh'd.

When I witnessed all this, I say, I could not prevent my mind from wandering to the interviews between Diana and Endymion; between Bacchus and Ariadne; between Venus and Adonis; between Jupiter, Apollo, in short, half the heathen gods, and as many favored mortals, whose names afterwards became emblazoned in the scrolls of mythology. It is remarkable, too, that the sex of the parties is as carefully adjusted in the former, as in the latter instances.’

Hills and fountains are still under the tutelage of saints, as they were in days of yore under that of the gods. The modern saints and antient gods have not only these points in common, but the figures in which they are represented are common to both superstitions. The lares were fixed in the public ways; and, by a decree of Augustus, they were annually adorned with spring and summer flowers. Few streets in Sicily and Italy are without at least one Madonna, situated after the antient manner at the point where they divided, and therefore equally intitled to the name of *Compitales*. The antient Romans sang to these objects of reverence, and the *tibia* was usually consecrated to their service: so, around the Madonnas, groupes of persons now sing their vespers; and peasants, chiefly from Calabria, troop into the towns, and play a simple air before every *Madonna Compitalis*. Scarcely a single house or shop in Pompeii is unprovided with a niche for the reception of small images of the household gods; and, at this day, the shops of Italy and Sicily also exhibit a figure of a Madonna or saint. Their images were also ordinary decorations of the chambers of the Romans.

‘ Whoever,’ says Mr. Blunt, ‘has walked through the wards of an Italian hospital, may probably have observed that there is not a single bed near which, in addition to the crucifix, we do not see posted upon the wall one or more pictures of a favourite saint. The same is the case in private houses. I remember counting ten such effigies at a bed's head in a house at Marsala. Indeed, in a palace of the King of Naples, and by the side of his Majesty's pillow, I found a small ill-executed print, representing the present Pope, in the act of calming a storm on one of his passages from Leghorn to Genoa. Neither are pictures alone thus employed.— Images of clay, painted with the brightest possible colours, and a good deal resembling those which the Italians may be often found carrying about for sale in this country, serve the turn equally well; and I have seen St. Roch figuring in a military cloak and Hessian boots, between our Saviour and the Virgin in this cubicular service.

'It may be worth while to add, that the mixture of sacred and profane images thus used in the early ages of the church, marks the transition of the ancient into the present practice. From Augustin (*de Hæres.* § 7.) it appears, that a certain woman named Marcellina, a disciple of Carpocrates the heretic, offered adorations and incense to Jesus and Paul, and Homer and Pythagoras: and Alexander Severus is reported to have reckoned amongst his household gods, Apollonius and Christ, and Abraham and Orpheus. (LAMPRID. *Vit. Alex. Sev.* c. 29.) Neither can it be objected, that the present custom differs from that of Pagan times, inasmuch as small paintings, as well as figures of solid material, are employed for lares. True it is, that most of the specimens of these objects of heathen worship which have been preserved to our own days are of the latter description; but it is certain that pictures also were used for the same purpose; the perishable nature of which has alone prevented them from being now generally found in museums.—However, we learn, from Juvenal, that the goddess Epona was painted on the stalls of the stables.

> '*Jurat*
> *Solam Eponam, et facies olida ad præsepia pictas.*
> Sat. viii. 157.

> 'On Epona with oaths the stripling calls,
> And hails her image painted on the stalls.

'Moreover in a small chapel now exhibited in the Museum at Portici, and discovered in a private house at Pompeii, besides the bronze figures of Priapus, to whom it is supposed to have been dedicated by some female of the family cursed with sterility, the wall opposite the entrance is painted with the forms of Isis, Osiris, and Anubis.'

The *Dii tutelares* were the especial guardians of shipping; and, as it appears abundantly from Horace and Ovid, they formed an established part of a Roman ship. Vessels were named also from their tutelar deities. St. Paul sailed from Melite to Puteoli in a ship "whose name was Castor and Pollux;" and the Italian and Sicilian vessels bear the names of "*Santa Maria della Providenza,*" "the *Santissimo Core di Jesu,*" &c. &c. The blind reliance of an Italian crew, also, on the miraculous interference of their guardian saint, at this day, runs parallel with that of the antient sailors.

'At Lucca is a famous image of our Saviour, called the Volto Santo. The history of it is the following: the figure was made by a sacred artificer of Palestine, whose only difficulty consisted in carving a suitable head. From this, however, he was relieved by receiving one miraculously sent from heaven. It happened that a certain Piedmontese bishop, who was travelling in those parts, came to the knowledge of this idol; and feeling himself moved to steal it, he observed a ship without sailor, passenger, or pilot, cruising off Joppa. To this vessel he committed the prize, when, wonderful to tell, it sailed without human assistance to Lerici, where it refused to resign its cargo to any but the bishop of Lucca. This and similar instances of modern superstition have their counterpart in ancient times. Thus it is recorded by Suetonius, that Galba and his adherents augured the greatest success to their cause, from the circumstance of a ship of Alexandria, laden with arms, coming into Dertosa, a town in Spain, selected as a rallying point for the rebels, without a single hand on board; so that there was no doubt of the war having been undertaken on just grounds, and with the approbation of the gods, "*ut nemini dubium esset justum piumque et faventibus Diis bellum suscipi.*" (SUETON. *Galba,* 10.) But the circumstances attending the introduction of Serapis into Alexandria, as related by Tacitus, are still more apposite. — When Ptolemy, persuaded by a dream, had sent Timotheus with some vessels to Pontus, to convey the image of that god from thence to Egypt, the king of Sinope (for that was the town from which it was brought) could not be prevailed upon, either by the dignity of the embassy, or the size of the fleet, or the value of the presents which accompanied it, to resign an object of so much veneration. — At length the anger of the gods at his obstinacy was indicated by numerous and severe diseases inflicted upon his country. The people, however, were not to be subdued; they continued to resist the removal of the idol, and surrounded its temple; whereupon, without any human aid, it miraculously walked on board one of the vessels, and in the incredibly short time of three days the fleet found itself at Alexandria, where a temple, corresponding with the extent of the city, was built for its reception.'

As to the extent to which charms were employed by the antients, we may judge of it from the small antique figures of bronze, &c. intended to be worn round the neck, having holes bored in them evidently for that purpose; and in the same manner scarcely an individual in modern Italy is unprovided with an image of a favorite Madonna or saint, which is suspended from the neck. Mr. Blunt observed, in a shop at Trepani, figures of the Virgin in bone, an inch long, and 'having no perceptible difference from those used by the Romans 2000 years ago.'

The passages to the baths, and the corners of streets and squares, were then as in these days liable to certain indecorous freedoms, which shall be nameless: but the antient Romans protected their walls from this species of desecration by the picture of a deity, or some hallowed emblem.

—— "*Pueri, sacer est locus, extra*
Meiite." PERS. i. 113.

In the cloister leading to the chapel of the Virgine del Monte at Bologna, the author noticed an advertisement in which her displeasure is threatened against those who profane that approach to her sanctuary; and at Florence similar denunciations are very common.

For the extraordinary homage paid to the Virgin in Italy and Sicily, Mr. B. ingeniously, and, in our opinion, unanswerably accounts by the nature of the religion of antient Rome; which honored a vast variety of female deities, and placed them in the highest ranks of divinity. This usage he justly attributes to Egypt.

‘ Indeed,’ he remarks, ‘ when Isis and Serapis were united in one temple in the capital of Italy, priority of place was assumed by the queen. It is natural, therefore, to suppose, that mankind, long retaining a propensity to relapse into idolatry, would endeavour to find some substitute for an important class of beings, which had for so many years exercised undisputed empire over the minds and passions of men, who, from climate and temperament, were perhaps peculiarly disposed to render the fair portion of the inhabitants of heaven a chivalrous obedience. The religion of Christianity, however, as it was taught by our Saviour and his immediate followers, afforded no stock on which this part of heathen mythology could be grafted. None of the three persons of the Trinity could, without much effort, be moulded into the form of a goddess; and the circumstance, that some ancient heretics actually did maintain the Holy Ghost to be a female, only serves to show the reluctance with which mankind bade adieu to that sex as objects of worship. On the other hand, the Virgin presented such an opportunity as could hardly escape the penetration of any age, much less of one which could call “ Barnabas Jupiter, and Paul Mercurius, because he was the chief speaker.” And indeed we find that a sect of persons, named Colyridians, arose amongst the Arabians, before the end of the fourth century, who offered cakes to the Virgin Mary as a goddess, and the Queen of Heaven. (Vid. JORTIN's *Eccles. Rem.* vol. i. 332.) When we consider, therefore, on the one side, the natural disposition of converts from paganism to mingle and confound the religion they had quitted with that they had espoused; and, on the other, the willingness which sincere but ill-judging Christians, such as Gregory Thaumaturgus, displayed to come to an accommodation with the Pagans, in hopes that time and improved knowledge might lead them to a purer faith; (Vid. SUICER. *verb.* εικων.) we shall not be surprised to find that many of the rites and much of the reverence which attached to the several female deities of old should have been concentrated in favour of the Madonna. An error so likely to arise in the common course of things was perhaps confirmed by the title of Θεοτοκὸς and Mater Dei, which was assigned to the Virgin without scruple, till the famous Nestorian controversy brought the subject into debate, and occasioned the council of Ephesus in 428, *which, after all, decided that* the term might be used with propriety.

'As this epithet in Pagan times was applied to Cybele, and as that goddess, from her primitive regard for the ancestors of the Romans,

> '(*Iliacas Mater amavit opes* —
>
> 'Ilium, the mighty Mother ever loved)

was held in peculiar honour in the capital of the world, and celebrated there with a magnificence agreeable to the importance of her character —

> '*Illa Deos peperit . . . . . cessere parenti,*
> *Principiumque dati mater honoris habet* —
> Ov. *Fast.* iv. 360.
>
> 'The gods she bore — to her the immortal race
> Resign'd the honours of the foremost place —

so does it seem almost inevitable that some confusion in the minds of half-enlightened persons would ensue in consequence of so singular an identity of name.'

Mr. Blunt witnessed the festival of S. Agatha at Catania, which alone furnishes several singular coincidences between the antient and the present worship. She is the chosen saint of Catania, as Diana was formerly the protectress of Syracuse, Mars of Rome, &c.; and in the dreadful eruption of 1669, when the lava rolled in torrents to the sea, her veil, being carried in procession towards the fiery deluge, most effectually drove it back and saved the city! The learned dissertator (chapter iv.) deduces satisfactorily the honors paid to S. Agatha from the rites of Ceres, formerly celebrated in the same town. We recommend the perusal of this chapter to our readers. The evidence collected from antient authors demonstrably shews what may be termed the *identity* of the modern festival and the antient Eleusinia of Catania.

In another chapter, the points of similarity between the old temples and the modern churches of Italy are strikingly exhibited. On the establishment of Christianity by Constantine, the heathen temples were converted into churches.

'In these temples, then, a variety of ceremonies had been practised for ages, in which the ancestors of the Christians had partaken; which many of the converts themselves had not forgotten; and which all had probably experienced frequent opportunities of witnessing. Here was the Aquaminarium, or vessel for purifying water at the doors. Here were paintings and statues of workmanship too exquisite to be destroyed. Here were numerous altars, and censers, and tripods, and votive offerings, and a thousand things besides, which composed the furniture of a heathen temple. It was natural that many of these ornaments or utensils, particularly such as were in themselves indifferent, should still maintain their ground through sufferance. The same spirit which would find no scruple in employing the profane building itself for a sacred purpose, would probably feel as little in adapting the interior parts of it to the same object. The one would not be thought a greater violation of decency than the other. What wonder then that the present places of worship should afford many striking features of resemblance to those of a heathen date?

'To proceed with our parallel: The vast number of temples with which ancient Italy was filled, has been succeeded by churches no less abundant. Of the former, in Rome alone there are said to have been four hundred and twenty sacred to Pagan gods; whilst of the latter, in the modern city and its suburbs, there are upwards of a hundred and fifty sacred to Christian saints. And as heretofore many temples were consecrated to the same deity under different titles, so now are there many churches devoted to the same saint, or to the Madonna, distinguished only by a diversity of epithets. Thus in ancient Rome there was a temple of Jupiter Custos, of Jupiter Feretrius, of Jupiter Sponsor, of Jupiter Stator, of Jupiter Tonans, of Jupiter Victor, &c.; of Venus Calva, Venus Verticordia, Venus Capitolina, Venus Erycina, Venus Cloacina, Venus Victrix, &c. So in modern Rome we find a church of Sa. Maria degli Angeli, Sa. Maria di Araceli, Sa. Maria Imperatrice, Sa. Maria Liberatrice, Sa. Maria della Consolazione, Sa. Maria Egyptiaca, Sa. Maria dell' Anima, &c.; S. Pietro in Vaticano, S. Pietro in Montorio, S. Pietro in Vinculo, S. Pietro in Carcere, &c. Again, the heathen temples were often dedicated to two divinities, as to Castor and Pollux, to Venus and Cupid, to Venus and Rome, to Honour and Virtue, to Isis and Serapis, &c. In like manner there are now churches to S. Marcellinus and Peter, to Jesus and Maria, to Dominicus and Sistus, to Celsus and Julianus, to S. Vincentius and Anastasius, &c.'

The chain of coincidences is almost endless: — the worship of several deities under the same roof; the simple transition of the temple of Vesta at Rome into the church of the Madonna of the Sun, fire being the prevailing idea in both appellations; the dedication of *votive* temples to the old gods, and of votive churches in the new worship; both antient temples and modern churches serving as monuments of important events, as for instance the temple at Sergesta commemorative of the landing of Æneas, that at Rome celebrating the spot where the cottage of Romulus once stood, the church of St. Paolo at Syracuse recording the site of the house where that apostle sojourned, the Santa Maria at Rome indicating the place where Peter and Paul lodged, &c. &c.; and the building of both for the reception of things peculiarly sacred, exemplified in the temple founded by Numa for the shield which had fallen from heaven, the church erected at Rome as a depositary for the chains with which St. Peter was *bound, &c. &c. &c.*

Several other facts are adduced by this industrious author, to shew the general connection between the Pagan temples and the Christian churches of Italy and Sicily. He also remarks that the oblong churches, so common in Italy, are constructed on the model of the Roman Basilicæ; and, in fact, several of the Roman churches retain the name, as the *Basilica di S. Giovanni Laterano*, &c. To elucidate the subject, Mr. Blunt gives the plan of one of these buildings, actually existing at Pompeii in a state nearly perfect, which will be found to accord very exactly with the modern oblong church.

'Again, the relative situation of the image and altar in the old temples and modern churches is the same. This is satisfactorily seen from a painting found at Pompeii, and at this moment in the Royal Museum of Portici. (Chamber 8. No. DCCCXLVI.) It exhibits a female in the act of sacrificing to Bacchus. The altar is placed in front of the statue of the god, and so much below him, as to allow him to receive the full benefit of the odour of the offering. Here may be distinctly traced the present practice of fixing a figure of our Saviour, the Virgin, or a saint, above the altar at which the priest performs mass, and during the celebration of which the incense from time to time is made to rise like an exhalation towards the object of reverence.

'It may be further observed, that whenever the altar is made of wood, (which in small churches, and particularly in those of the country, it commonly is,) a stone, about a foot in diameter, is always let into the middle of the table. By the priests it is called the stone of consecration, and is considered emblematical of that rock on which Christ promised to build his church. As in such a case, however, the foundation of the building would have been its proper situation, and not the altar, I cannot help imagining that it is a relic of those times when burnt sacrifices were offered up, and when it was consequently necessary that the altars on which they were laid should be made of incombustible materials. Such a supposition seems the more reasonable, as it is upon this stone that the elements of the mass are at present placed.

'Tripods, so constantly numbered amongst the sacred utensils of a heathen temple, and of which so many are yet preserved in museums of antiquities, I have also seen employed in a church; the purpose which they served being to support a brasier, containing the fire from which the incense was lighted.

'Enough has been said by Dr. Middleton, on the paint and apparel which the Italians bestow on the figures of the saints, as their ancestors did on those of their gods. I will add, that the necklaces, rings, and pendants for the ears, with which the latter were bedecked, (PLIN. *N. H.* 33. 1—9. 35.) are now lavished on the former with equal profusion. Indeed, the excess of rings seems, if possible, to be greater than in the days of Pliny; and that hand would now be thought but sparingly arrayed, which had not more than three fingers loaded with such ornaments.

Again, the practice of drawing curtains before these figures, to create in the people a mysterious awe, had its commencement in Pagan times. Thus we read in the second book of Kings, (ch. xxiii. 7.) "of the women who wove hangings for the groves," which is explained by some of the commentators, with apparent reason, to mean "curtains spread before the idol of the grove for the purpose of procuring it respect:" "*Cortinæ prætensæ Idolo luci reverentiæ conciliandæ gratiâ.*" In the temple which the poet proposes to raise to Augustus on the banks of the Mincius, the curtain before the shrine forms a part of its decorations.

> '*Jam nunc solemnes ducere pompas*
> *Ad delubra juvat, cæsosque videre juvencos:*
> *Vel scena ut versis discedat frontibus, utque*
> *Purpurea intexti tollant aulæa Britanni.*
> Georg. iii. 25.

> 'E'en now I view the long processions near,
> The opening temple, and the weltering steer;
> Then turn, and mark the shifting scene, and hail
> The Briton lifting high th' embroider'd veil.'

Dr. Middleton has clearly traced the practice of the officiating priest being attended by boys during the celebration of mass, from the heathen worship; and Mr. Blunt brings an additional illustration to the remark, viz. a picture found at Herculaneum, which proves beyond all controversy the antiquity of the usage. In this painting, a boy in a white tunic down to his knees bears in one hand a dish with the offering, and in the other a wreath of flowers, which the priest receives and presents to the god. Instead of oblations and chaplets, the boy who ministers at the present day supplies books and censers: but, with this slight difference, the coincidence is exact. The similarity of the antient sacrifice and the modern mass, the victim of the former being *Hostia*, and the wafer in the latter being also *Ostia*, — the sprinkling of holy water, a ceremony incident also to the Roman sacrifice, — the chaunting of the offices, — and the use of small bells during mass, — are additional instances in aid of Mr. Blunt's proposition. Above all, the processions, attended by music, tapers, and images, by which the rites of the Catholic church are so splendidly decorated, were striking characteristics of the old Roman processions through the city and the circus.

How remarkable a coincidence is furnished by the antient *lectisternium;* a day of repose decreed to gods on joyful occasions, on which their statues were taken from their pedestals and laid on couches? In like manner, the figures of saints are now deposited on a bench for some days, while the people offer their prayers and oblations.

Chapter x., on Charms, is very interesting. On the subject of sneezing we cite the following passage:

> 'Whatever may have been the cause, something mysterious seems always to have been attached to the act of sneezing. Any future evil, however, to which it might have been the prelude, was supposed to be averted by a word of good augury from a bystander. This, like many other unintelligible notions, has descended from the Romans, (at least more immediately from them, though the same fancy prevailed amongst the Jews and Greeks,) to several modern nations. In our own, the salutation of 'God bless you' is sometimes given upon such occasions; in France, '*Dieu vous soit en aide*' is not uncommon; but in Italy that of '*Viva,*' or '*Felicità,*' is paid with the utmost scrupulousness.
>
> 'Thus too it is recorded of Tiberius, that whenever he sneezed in his carriage, he exacted such a mark of attention from his companions with the most religious solicitude. (PLIN. *N. H.* xxviii. 2.) And it appears probable that 'Felicitas' (the Felicità of the Italians) was the very expression in use among the Romans themselves. In proof of which may be adduced one of the numerous advertisements found upon the walls of Pompeii, that concludes with wishing the people good speed by this single word.'

The Burial of the Dead (chap. xi.) also furnishes several points of agreement between the old Romans and the present Italians.

> 'Persons of the middle and upper classes are attended to their graves by a long procession of monks and members of religious companies, who carry tapers in their hands, and as they move along sing a requiem to the departed soul. These lights moreover are used though the funeral takes place in broad day.
>
> 'Now we all know that anciently a profusion of torches accompanied the corpse; that the word 'funeral,' in fact, was derived from '*funes accensi;*' that these were thought equally necessary though the ceremony was performed at the blaze of noon, (SERV. *ad Æn.* vi. 224.); that a numerous procession was in attendance, and people to sing the nænia or dirge.
>
> 'When the procession has reached the church, the bier is set down in the nave, and the officiating priest in the course of the appointed service sprinkles the body with holy water three times; a rite in all probability ensuing from that practised by the Romans, of thrice sprinkling the by-standers with the same element:
>
> '*Idem ter socios purâ circumtulit undâ*
> *Spargens rore levi, et ramo felicis olivæ.*' (Æn. vi. 230.)

We regret that we must take only a slight notice of the chapter 'on the Agriculture of Italy:' but, however pleasing it must be to the classical traveller to trace, in his progress through that country, the vestiges of antient agriculture which are endeared to his mind by the glowing and picturesque descriptions

scriptions of the poet of the Georgics, still, the existence of those vestiges is a melancholy proof that the cultivation of the earth, in the course of so many centuries, has there made little or no progress. In the north of Italy, agriculture is far from being neglected: but a great portion of the papal territory is miserably desolate, harmonizing in many respects with the withered old age and decrepitude of the capital itself. — Mr. Blunt has collected several instances of coincidence between the former and existing modes of agriculture in Italy: but we have room only for his observations on the cultivation of the vine.

'The manner of cultivating the vine in Italy, though differing from the more approved method of France, Switzerland, and Germany, is the very same as that which was in use amongst the Romans. To marry it with the maple, the elm, or the poplar, is certainly far more picturesque than to cut it down annually, and support its renovated shoots by poles of four feet long. The superiority, however, of the latter practice, with a view to the quality of the juice of the grape, is manifest from the superior excellence of the wines in the countries where it is followed; and, indeed, the more powerful influence of the sun upon the fruit, obtained partly by its reflection from the earth upon the branches, which in this case cannot be raised much above the surface, and partly from the absence of boughs to impede its approach, could not avoid producing the most favourable consequences. The Italian, however, adheres to a usage sanctioned by his forefathers:

> '*Atque adultâ vitium propagine*
> *Altas maritat populos.*
>
> 'His marriageable vines
> Around the lofty bridegroom elm he twines. (Francis.)

And who would not willingly compromise for a wine of somewhat inferior flavour, to enjoy the pleasure of seeing the fantastic branches of the vine twisting themselves about the arms of the trees which sustain them, and hanging in graceful festoons along successive avenues?

'There is one advantage derived from this plan, and one by no means inconsiderable in a country possessing so little pasture-land as Italy; that the foliage of the trees of the vineyard supplies a quantity of green food for the cattle. Persons mount into them and pluck off the leaves when they are sufficiently expanded, into bags; a process which has the additional merit of laying open the clusters to the sun.

'It was not until I observed this practice in Italy, that I understood the exact meaning of several passages in the Eclogues of Virgil. — That in the first, for instance,

> '*Hinc altâ sub rupe canet frondator ad auras* —
> Virg. *Ec.* i 57.

"While from the neighbouring rocks, with rural songs,
The pruner's voice the pleasing dream prolongs —
DRYDEN.

or that in the ninth,

'*Hic, ubi densas*
Agricolæ stringunt frondes —

'Where hinds are stripping the luxuriant leaves —

where the husbandmen are described as employed, not merely in dressing the vine itself, but in stripping off the leaves of the elm upon which it rested. In the line

'*Semiputata tibi frondosâ vitis in ulmo est.* *Ec.* ii. 70.

'Half pruned thy vine, and leafy is thy elm —

I had been accustomed to think, that the reproach of neglect was conveyed in the word '*semiputata*,' the plant had been left half-pruned; but it is no less implied in the expression '*frondosa*,' which is not on this occasion an idle epithet connected with the elm, but is intended to signify that the operation of plucking the foliage from it had been disregarded, as well as that of dressing the vine.' *

We must now refer our readers to the chapters on the towns, houses, utensils, habits, food, and dress of the Italians and Sicilians; for we have already exceeded our due limits in the space which we have assigned to this volume, although the interesting and varied nature of the subjects, and their connection with the fascinating studies of our youth, might warrant even a more extended notice of it. We would hint to its ingenious author, that a few omissions of some singular and striking coincidences are discernible, which could not but have attracted his attention, and which would have rendered his work more complete. He has taken no notice of several popular games still prevalent in Italy, such as the *Ruzzica*, and others, which are equally of Roman origin. The *Pallone* also, which is common through Italy, and played by two persons, who throw the *pallone* (a great leather ball) from one to another by means of the *bracciale*, (a wooden instrument covered with knobs, into which they thrust their arms,)

---

* A curious exemplification of the injurious effect of the old Roman mode of managing the vines occurs in Madeira. On the north side of the island, where the vine is still "married to the elm," and taught to cling to it in gay clusters, the wine is of a thin, poor, sour quality: but, on the other parts of the island, the vines that produce its staple wine are trained about four feet from the ground on low sloping trellisses, which cover the steep side of the hills. — *Rev.*

arms,) is the very game of ball which the old Roman philosophers used by way of exercise and amusement. The modern foot-ball of the Italians, called *Calcio*, is also of antient origin.

ART. V. *A Journey to Two of the Oases of Upper Egypt.* By Sir Archibald Edmonstone, Bart. 8vo. 10*s*. 6*d*. Boards. Murray. 1822.

ALTHOUGH this is a small it is by no means an unimportant accession to geographical science: for if the existence of a *fourth* Oasis in the great desert of Upper Egypt had been at any time conjectured, it assuredly was not ascertained previously to the expedition of which this volume contains a narrative. We are disposed, therefore, to award to Sir Archibald Edmonstone the entire merit, or rather the felicity, of being the discoverer. By singular good fortune, indeed, he arrived there just in time to obtain the distinction of being the first European visitant of that secluded district; as the party, on their return, fell in with M. Drovetti, who had just been to the nearer oasis, and was then actually on his way to that which they were leaving, and at which they had arrived by a shorter cut than they had originally meditated, by crossing the desert in a south-western direction from Siout. It was a whip and spur matter; for, at that place, Sir Archibald learned that his French competitor had set out for the same Oasis three days before him. Our traveller, therefore, abandoned the route which he had projected by way of Esne and which had been recommended by Belzoni, and outran his opponent by taking the nearest course over the desert. M. Drovetti, however, contrived to get the start of his rival in publication, and inserted in the splendid work lately edited by M. Jomard the narrative of his expedition to the more western oasis, known by the name of the Valley of El Dakel. * A slight change of date, owing no doubt to the shortness of memory which is characteristic of great wits, enabled him to usurp the honor so fairly earned by Sir Archibald, and to add another instance to the "*sic vos non vobis;*" — a misfortune of no rare occurrence in human competitions.

If our readers have forgotten this M. Drovetti, we will briefly remind them that it was the same gentleman who was so fearful lest Belzoni should poach on his manor; and who, having partitioned the whole of the Thebaid with Mr. Salt, most effectually prevented the former traveller from prosecuting his researches in that quarter. Indeed, so vigilantly was the demesne protected, that poor Belzoni narrowly escaped with his life, for he was attacked by ruffians whom he supposes to have been in the pay of Drovetti. So scandalous a fact has indeed been denied by that gentleman: but this is certain, that, if the renegadoes, who were avowedly in his employ, were not actually abetted by M. Drovetti, he himself was on the spot at the time, and took every step that was in his power to suppress inquiry and obstruct the course of justice.

---

* *Voyage à l'Oasis de Thèbes, et dans les Deserts situés à l'Orient et à l'Occident de la Thébaide, par M.* Jomard, *Membre de l'Institut.* Paris. 1821.

As to the priority of discovery, so modestly claimed by the French traveller, Sir Archibald thus puts him down with a few plain facts:

'M. Drovetti left Egypt at Siout, and proceeded to El Cargé by the regular caravan road; discovered there the temples of Cazar el Goetta and Cazar el Zian, omitted by M. Cailliaud, and then followed the same route by which we returned, by En Amour to Bellata. I cannot, however, but observe, that though he professes to have made this journey the latter end of the year 1818, it was in fact in the month of February, 1819: and whereas he announces himself* as the first European who had reached the farther Oasis, or Valley of Dakel, in modern times, it escaped his memory that on the 21st of February, about three or four in the afternoon, he, on his way to Bellata, about half a day's journey from it, met, and had some conversation with us, who were on our return. On his way back to the Nile he followed the same course as we had taken in setting out.'

M. Jomard, however, is innocent of the disingenuous trick played on our countryman; and he confesses that in this part of the subject he is working in the dark. "*M. le Chevalier Drovetti, à qui j'ai l'obligation de l'itinéraire du vallon d'el Dakel, n'ayant fourni que des distances approximatives, et peu de directions, je ne donne cette partie que comme conjecturale.*" Yet the result is a difference of not less than a quarter of the compass between the map of Jomard and that of Sir Archibald; for in the French chart the valley of Dakel is made to extend north and south instead of west and south, an error which Sir A. rightly concludes could not have been made on the spot.

Leaving now these points to future discussion, we shall briefly present our readers with the substance of the information contained in the short volume before us.

The Oases are spots of fertile soil in the midst of the desert, generated, according to the hypothesis of Major Rennell,

---

'* *Voyage à l'Oasis*, &c. p. 53.'

well, by vegetation quickened by springs, and then by the decomposition of that vegetation converted into soil; and they have been generally supposed, both by antient and modern geographers, to be only three in number. Browne and Hornemann had explored the most northern, that of Siwah; which there is little reason to doubt was the site of the celebrated temple of Jupiter Ammon. The site of the second, or small Oasis, has been satisfactorily determined by Belzoni. The third, or large Oasis, commences about the latitude of Thebes, and was visited by Browne in his journey to Dar Fûr: but it remained for Sir Archibald Edmonstone to discover a *fourth* Oasis, lying to the west of the large Oasis; and, in order to prove his claim to the discovery, he has collected the accounts of antient and Arabic authors, the reports of travellers, and the various systems of geographers who have treated on these singular spots. He has also entered into minute details respecting the Bedouins, to gratify the liberal curiosity naturally excited by the manners and habits of the nomade tribes, in an age so reflecting and inquisitive as the present. We cannot refuse room for the following particulars concerning this interesting race.

'Feb. 11.—Our guides not being in readiness, we occupied this morning in wandering about the camp, and observing the peculiarities of the extraordinary people we were amongst. It was impossible not to be forcibly struck with the scene around us. The manners of the Bedouins of the nineteenth century differ but little from those of the immediate descendants of Ishmael, and we were now witnesses to the primitive simplicity of the patriarchal ages; which, through a period of near four thousand years, has, by means of this singular race, been handed down to us unimpaired.

'The whole encampment consisted of four hundred families, and was dispersed about some rich meadows on the border of the desert. Three tents belonged to Hamet, in one of which were the women. Forty camels, three horses, with a considerable number of cows, sheep, and goats, composed his stock, which were all, excepting the camels, brought close round his dwelling at night. The Bedouins value most highly the female camels and mares. Five hundred piastres are frequently given for the former, and, as the Egyptian breed of horses is very heavy, and more strong than active, the genuine Arabian is considered invaluable. They are extremely rare, and when of pure extraction, are estimated as high as fifteen thousand piastres; a sum Bedouins are seldom likely to possess.

'I was much surprised at their mode of treatment of a young camel. As soon as it was born they squeezed and struck its legs most unmercifully against the ground for some minutes. At first, I conceived this violence arose from disappointment at some defect or deformity, and that they would infallibly kill it; but it appeared they treated it thus roughly, merely for the purpose of rendering the joints supple; and in a very short time the animal was able to stand, and receive nutriment from the mother. When two or three months old the flesh is said to be good, and the milk of the female is very nutritious and palatable.'—

'The rigorous power of the Pasha has reduced these wandering tribes to a state of dependance. By virtue of an agreement, they are retained in his service as irregular troops; and Sheik Hamet who commands four hundred families, receives annually thirty-five thousand piastres to distribute among them. The Bedouins, who inhabit villages, pay regular tribute, but those who have no fixed residence, and live in tents, remove from the desert when the inundation of the Nile subsides, to the borders of Egypt, where they rent certain portions of corn-land, at the rate, I was informed, of a tenth of the produce. From the extreme luxuriance of the soil, they are allowed the free use of pasturage.

'The characteristic dress of the Bedouins is a Bernooz or white Barbary cloak, thrown across the shoulder, which, forming a sort of hood, is bound close to the head by a dark-coloured shawl. Under this they wear nothing but a shirt, fastened round the waist by a leathern belt, and their arms are a gun, or matchlock, and a brace of long pistols. Their domestic furniture is the simplest possible, allowing them to decamp at a few minutes' notice; and when on a march, they carry the women on camels in a wooden machine resembling panniers.

'We had frequent opportunities during our journey of seeing the Bedouin mode of attack, which our guides were in the habit of practising for exercise and amusement. It consists in riding at the enemy at full speed; firing their gun or pistols; wheeling round; loading them again; and then returning to the charge. This is performed with wonderful agility, and the perfect command they have over their horses enables them to execute their manœuvres with the greatest nicety and precision. The curb they use is a ring of iron, attached to the bit, which is so severe, that the horses are easily checked or even stopped when at the utmost extent of their speed: and on the banks of the Jordan I saw an Arab drop the end of a long spear on the ground, and retaining hold of it in the middle with his right hand, wheel round it without ever slackening his pace.'

The newly discovered, or western, Oasis is divided from the great Oasis by a low chain of mountains. Of the latter spot, El Cargé is the principal town, distant about 105 miles from Belatta, the first village in the farther Oasis. El Cazar, four miles and a half to the north, is described as lovely in point of situation; and there the author's researches were repaid by the discovery of a temple in tolerable preservation, though half filled with sand.

'We scaled the wall without difficulty, and immediately set about clearing the interior of the temple; but after three or four hours, finding that our labours would be fruitless, we desisted, and proceeded to measure every part with a graduated line.

'The edifice on the outside is fifty-one feet four inches long, by twenty-four feet eight inches wide. In front is a portico of eight columns; three only are standing, and they in a mutilated state; their circumference is nine feet six inches, and the space between seven feet seven inches: the two centres have portals reaching half way up, not connected by a lintel. The first chamber is twenty-three feet nine inches, by twenty feet three inches, supported by four pillars, five feet in diameter at the shaft. As much as is visible of the walls is traced with figures and hieroglyphics. This apartment opens into another of the same width, but only ten feet four inches long, perfectly plain and unornamented, excepting by the winged globe encompassed by the serpent, the emblem of eternity, which is carved over the door. Beyond this chamber, and communicating with it, are three smaller parallel to each other, of which the middle one was the Adytum. Here the walls are covered with figures and hieroglyphics, and much blackened by the lamps used in the service of the temple. The other two compartments are of the same length as the centre, and five feet wide. The roof still continues entire over these three chambers, which are lower than the rest of the building.

'The temple stands due east and west. Round it, at the interval of twenty yards, are the remains of a thick wall of unburnt brick, and a gateway of stone facing the entrance. Besides the natural injury this structure has sustained from time and violent winds, its ruin has been greatly accelerated by the Arabs in the forcible entries they have made in search of treasure.'

It appears that a communication formerly subsisted between the two Oases; and broken pots and tiles, which Sir Archibald found at certain intervals, indicate (as he conjectures) the places occupied as Roman stations. The two districts are also subject to the same Cachief. Every antient author, with the exception only of Olympiodorus, is silent as to the farther region; and hence it is supposed that it was considered as forming part of the *Oasis Magna:*—but their distances from each other, and the intervening ridge of mountains, which form a natural barrier between them, militate in some degree against such a supposition; and Olympiodorus explicitly describes the two larger Oases as lying opposite to each other, a hundred miles apart;—a description accurately corresponding to the relative situations of the Great and the Western Oases. Siwah, the more northerly Oasis, the site of the antient Ammon, was explored by Browne and Hornemann. The small Oasis, visited by Belzoni, is four days' journey south-east of Siwah, and consists, like the Great Oasis, of a series of inhabited spots. The Western Oasis, which is the last inhabited tract in that direction,—the *ultima Thule* of the desert,—extends from east to west, whereas the Great Oasis runs north and south. It is composed of twelve villages, ten of which are within five and six miles of each other.

'The climate is extremely variable in winter. Sometimes the rains are very abundant, and fall in torrents, as appears from the furrows in the rocks; but this season there had been none at all; and the total want of dew at this period sufficiently proves the excessive dryness of the atmosphere. Violent winds are very prevalent, and the kamsin, (S.W.) which is with justice called the scourge of the desert, frequently blows in the months of May and June. The plague is quite unknown, but, during the summer when the heat is intense, fevers and agues are very general, which the shehk attributed to the immoderate use of dates. This may be one of the causes, but what I should imagine conduces also to the insalubrity of that season is, that the springs are all strongly impregnated with iron and sulphur, and hot at their sources; nor indeed can the water be used until it has been left to cool in an earthen jar, when it becomes more palatable. These springs never fail or vary at any season of the year, which is most fortunate for the natives, as their very existence depends upon them, there being no wells that I could observe.

'The soil is a very light red earth, fertilized entirely by irrigation, the water being conducted in small channels through the arable land. The principal produce is corn, chiefly barley and rice. The former is sown in October and November, and reaped in March or April. The crop of rice succeeds, but not on the same ground, and requires constant moisture. Dates are an article of commerce with Egypt, and we often met caravans conveying them; lemons and citrons are also very plentiful in the gardens.

'The inhabitants are Bedouins, I believe of the same horde as our guides; like them they acknowledge the sovereignty of the Pasha, who has succeeded in reducing them to a state of complete subordination. As a proof of this, their tribute, which is paid in kind, not only varies every year, according to his caprice, as they affirm, but four or five soldiers are now sufficient for levying it, whereas four hundred were necessary for that purpose when they first came under his dominion.'

Fancy is willing to conjecture that these secluded spots, belted round with untrodden sands, and lying so far beyond the ordinary haunts of man, would be secure from the havoc and devastation of his passions: but the remote Oasis of the desert boasts no exemption from human violence and oppression. Nor have these sequestered and insulated regions eluded the vigilance or escaped the yoke of the Pasha; for they pay an annual tribute to Cairo, which at the same time is far from securing to them the efficient protection of that government. 'The people are much exposed,' says the author, 'to the incursions of the Mograbbin or Barbary Arabs, and occasionally suffer much from their depredations.

Three years ago, a band of four hundred made an irruption, and after a severe contest, in which many lives were lost, retired, carrying off much booty.' (P. 55.)

At Bellata, a manufacture of indigo * is carried on.

'The method of extracting the colour appeared very simple. The plant, when dried, is put into an earthen jar with hot water, and worked up and down by a palm-branch, resembling the handle of a churn, until the colour is pressed out. The liquid is then strained through the bark of a tree into another jar, where it is left for eight or nine days, during which time part of the water escapes by trickling through a small aperture half way down the side of it, leaving the sediment at bottom. It is afterwards poured into a broad but very shallow hole formed in the sand, which absorbs the remaining liquid, and leaves the indigo in solid cakes on the surface. This commodity is the property of the richer inhabitants of the village, and is one of the very few articles of trade or manufacture which the Pasha has not monopolized, probably from ignorance of its existence here.'

Several neat lithographic engravings illustrate the ruins visited by the author in the course of his journey: but they are merely restorations of the elder monuments of the country, under the Roman emperors of the second century. The inscriptions are apparently copied with great accuracy; and the author is indebted to the learning of his friend Dr. Young for the corrected copies, and for the translations of them which he has inserted in his volume. — Of these ruins, the Necropolis at El Cargé is the most splendid.

'Having completed,' says the traveller, 'our measurements of the Temple, we again went to the Necropolis to examine it more leisurely than we had done before. It contains apparently not fewer than two or three hundred buildings of unburnt brick, ranged without attention to regularity, and of various sizes and shapes. The greater number of them however are square, surmounted by a dome, similar to the small mosques erected over shehks' tombs, having for the most part a corridor running round, which produces an ornamental effect very striking at a distance, and gives them a nearer resemblance to Roman than to any existing specimen of Greek or Egyptian architecture. Some few are larger than the rest; one in particular is divided into aisles, like our churches; and that it had been used as such, by the early Christians, is clearly evinced by the traces of saints painted on the wall. Many have Coptic or perhaps Greek inscriptions, but written in a hand not legible, and a few Arabic. In all we entered there is the Greek cross, and the celebrated Egyptian hieroglyphic, the Crux Ansata, which originally signifying life would appear to be adapted as a Christian em-

---

'* The indigo of Egypt is produced from the *indigo fera glauca of Lamarck.*'

blem either from its similarity to the shape of the cross, or from its being considered the symbol of a state of future existence. But the great peculiarity is a large square hole in the centre of each, evidently for the purpose of containing a mummy, and which, from the fragments and wrappings that lay scattered about, had probably been ransacked for the sake of plunder.

'It is therefore obvious that these buildings formed a cemetery to the town which stood near or about the temple of El Cargé, and were subsequently used for sacred purposes by the Christian inhabitants, or at a later period as places of retreat to them when persecuted by the Mohammedans.

'I should imagine these sepulchres to be of Roman construction at an early period, since it is generally believed that the practice of embalming was gradually discontinued in Egypt after the extension of Christianity; but among the various receptacles for the remains of the dead, from the stupendous pyramid to the rudest cavern, I know of none existing or recorded, at all corresponding with them in shape and appearance. Considering them therefore as highly curious from their structure as well as unique of their kind, I sincerely hope that any future traveller who may come here will particularly direct his attention to them, and that moreover he will be able to do what we could not, make faithful transcripts of the inscriptions.'

We must now take leave of this interesting subject, but not without offering our thanks to the author for the unostentatious manner in which he has illustrated it.

ART. VI. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for 1822. Part I.

[*Article concluded from Rev.* Vol. xcix. p. 289.]

Also, Part II. for 1822. 4to. 1*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* sewed. Nicols, &c.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, NATURAL HISTORY, &c.

SOME Positions respecting the Influence of the Voltaic Battery, in obviating the Effects of the Division of the Eighth Pair of Nerves, drawn up by A. P. Wilson Philip, M. D. &c. — Mr. Brodie not being satisfied with Dr. Philip's experiments and conclusions on the subject of this brief paper, the Doctor very candidly offered to determine the points at issue by an investigation conjointly; and the results finally admitted were,

1. That, when the nerves of the eighth pair were divided in the neck of a rabbit, but the ends not displaced, and the animal was allowed to live some hours, it was found that food swallowed *immediately before the division of the nerves was considerably digested*, even when the divided ends of the nerves had retracted to the distance of a quarter of an inch from each other.

2. In other experiments, in which the divided ends had been turned completely away from each other, little or no digested food was found when the animal was allowed to live some hours: but if, in such circumstances, the stomach was exposed from the time of the division of the nerves to the influence of a voltaic battery, sent through the lower portion of the divided nerves, its contents were apparently as much altered as they would have been in the same time in the healthy animal. The change was also not only of the same kind as in that case, but the contents became less in quantity.

3. The division of the nerves in both ways produced difficulty of breathing, and efforts to vomit; neither of which occurred when the stomach and lungs were brought under the influence of a voltaic battery, sent through the lower portion of the divided nerves.

4. When, under the above mentioned circumstances, the lungs had *not* been exposed to the voltaic influence, and the animal had been allowed to live five or six hours, they were found much congested: but, in the rabbit which *had been* subjected to this influence, they seemed quite healthy.

On some alvine Concretions found in the Colon of a Young Man, after Death. By J. G. Children, Esq.—A young man was in the habit of swallowing plumbs unripe, and unstoned, to the extent of several quarts daily in July, 1814. At Christmas following, he had complaints in the abdomen, with diarrhœa; and, after some time, a hard circumscribed tumor appeared on one side of the abdomen, arising evidently from an alvine concretion. On the 6th of May, 1815, being worn out, he died; and on dissection three concretions, closely compacted, were found in the arch of the colon, with a fourth at nearly the termination of the colon. The coats of the intestines were much thickened where these tumours existed; and the concretion at the lower end of the colon being sawed through, it was found to contain a plumb stone in the centre. Two other cases are also related.

The concretions consisted chiefly of phosphate of lime and ammoniaco-magnesian phosphate. The largest weighed 1036 grains; the smallest, 511¼ grains.

On a new Species of Rhinoceros, found in the Interior of Africa, the Skull of which bears a close Resemblance to that found in a Fossil State in Siberia and other Countries. By Sir Everard Home, Bart.— The occurrence of this animal may serve to invalidate the opinion that all fossil-bones were those of animals no longer in existence on the earth. It was shot above a thousand miles in nearly a straight direction from the Cape of Good Hope, and is of a species which feeds on grass, and is not gregarious, but lives in pairs. The hide is without hair. The skull, which was brought to England with the horns in their natural situation, is 36 inches long, as likewise is the long horn. The horn is not apparently different from that of the fossil rhinoceros of Siberia.

On the Electrical Phænomena exhibited in vacuo. By Sir Humphrey Davy, Bart. — Electricity was always an interesting subject, but has become more deeply attractive in consequence of our knowlege of its influence in producing or destroying chemical union, and variously modifying chemical attraction; and especially by the late information obtained respecting the connection between magnetism and electricity. The most important discoveries of Sir H. Davy, who ascertained the chemical influences of electricity, are well appreciated by the public: but some undetermined questions remain, such as whether electricity be a subtile elastic fluid? Are electrical effects merely the exhibition of the attractive powers of the particles of bodies? Are heat and light elements of electricity, or merely the effects of its action? Is magnetism identical with electricity, or an independent agent put in action by it? — These questions, perhaps, cannot be answered in the present state of our knowlege of corpuscular philosophy.

As connected with all these points, the author now inquires into *the Relations of Electricity to Space, as nearly void of Matter as it can be made on the Surface of the Earth.* — Mr. Walsh and Mr. Morgan concluded from their experiments that electrical light could not be produced in a perfect Torricellian vacuum, and that such a vacuum prevented the coating of charged glass: but, as in the most perfect Torricellian vacuum that can be made, the vapor of mercury still exists, Sir H. Davy was induced to doubt the accuracy of the experiments on which the conclusion in question was founded. Hence a fixed metal in fusion was used for making the vacuum, to exclude as far as possible the presence of any volatile matter; and the results were that, when the Torricellian vacuum was made, it was permeable to electricity, was rendered luminous by either the common spark or the shock from a Leyden jar, and the coated glass surrounding it became charged: but the intensity was increased by a high temperature, and diminished by a low one: indeed, on cooling to 20° below zero of Fahrenheit, it requires considerable darkness to perceive *any* light. Sir H. Davy considers it as evident 'from these general results that the light, and probably the heat, generated in electrical discharges, depends *principally* on some properties or substances belonging to the ponderable matter through which it passes: but they prove likewise that space, where there is no appreciable quantity of this matter, is capable of exhibiting electrical phænomena; and in this point of view, they are favorable to the idea of the phænomena of electricity being produced by a highly subtile fluid, or fluids, of which the particles are repulsive with respect to each other, and attractive of the particles of other matter.' The hypotheses of Hooke, Huygens, and Euler, may therefore be assumed, that an ethereal matter fills all space, or that the positive and negative electrical states may increase the force of vapor from the substances in which they exist.

This paper abounds with very ingenious hypotheses suggested by the experiments, but which are not susceptible of an abridged account in our pages.

The Croonian Lecture. On the Anatomical Structure of the Eye; illustrated by Microscopical Drawings by J. Bauer, Esq. By Sir Everard Home, Bart. — Mr. Bauer was requested to direct his microscopical observations to the examination of the different parts of the eye in the human species, quadrupeds, and birds. The results are that the marsupium in the bird's eye is not muscular, but is a fine vascular membrane; and that the anterior layer of the globe of the eye 'is made up of about 80 processes, lying directly behind the iris, and with it firmly attached at the base to the choroid and sclerotic coat: these are membranous, very vascular, and the surface next the lens is concave; that next the iris, convex.' Many microscopical appearances are described, on which perhaps the author lays more stress than the generality of other persons will assign to them. It is worth notice that the *nigrum pigmentum* appears to be nothing more than the coloring matter of the red globules, rendered black in the act of separation from the arteries: it is also deposited on the surface of the ciliary processes and iris by the arteries with which they are loaded, and covered by a pellucid membrane.

Expence has not been spared in displaying the appearances with Mr. Bauer's microscope, not fewer than 12 plates being engraved for this purpose. The value of such labors will be very differently estimated by different persons: but it is obvious that these appearances are infinite.

Account of an Assemblage of Fossil Teeth and Bones of the Elephant, Rhinoceros, Hippopotamus, Bear, Tiger, and Hyæna, and Sixteen other Animals; discovered in a cave at Kirkdale, Yorkshire, in the Year 1821*: with a comparative View of five similar Caverns in various Parts of England, and others on the Continent.* By the Reverend William Buckland, F.R.S. &c. — This curious account of the bones of the above-mentioned animals, found in a cave near Kirby-moor Side, 25 miles from York, has already produced a considerable sensation among philosophers who are engaged in the investigation of the revolutions in our planet. In applying the facts furnished by the Kirkdale cave to geology, the author enters into some previous explanations; and first it may be necessary to explain the word *diluvium*, which Mr. B. assigns to those extensive and general deposits of superficial gravel, which appear to have been produced by the last great convulsion that has affected the earth: affording indications of a recent and transient inundation. Analogous evidences have been collected from the state of the gravel-beds and vallies in the midland parts of England; from the vallies which intersect the coast of West Dorset and East Devonshire, &c. Hence the author employs the epithet *diluvial* to the results of the last great convulsion; *antediluvial*, to the state of things immediately preceding it; and *postdiluvial*, or *alluvial*, to that which succeeded it, and have continued to the present time.

Mr. B. next gives a detailed geological description of the rock in which the cavern is situated, as also of the cavern itself; and then he furnishes the most important part of the communication, viz. a particular enumeration of the animal-remains there inhumed, with the very remarkable phænomena by which they are attended. The rock perforated by the cave at Kirkdale is referable to that portion of the oolite formation which, in the north of England, is known by the name of the Oxford oolite and coral rag. Its organic remains are identical with those of the Heddington quarries near Oxford: but its substance is harder and more compact, and more interspersed with siliceous matter, forming irregular concretions, beds and nodules of chert in the lime-stone, and sometimes entirely penetrating its coralline remains. The most compact beds of this lime-stone resemble the younger Alpine lime-stone of Meillierie and Aigle in Swisserland, and they alternate with and pass gradually into those of a coarser oolitic texture; while both varieties are stratified in beds from one to four feet thick. The cave is situated in one of the compact beds which lies between two others of the coarser oolitic variety; the latter varying in color from light yellow to blue: while the compact beds are of a dark grey passing to black, are extremely fetid, and full of corals and spines of the *echinus cidaris*.

It was not till the summer of 1821 that the existence of any animal-remains, or even of the cavern containing them, had been suspected: but at this time, in continuing the operation of a large quarry along the brow of the slope just mentioned, the workmen accidentally intersected the mouth of a long hole or cavern, closed externally with rubbish, and overgrown with grass and bushes; when the discovery ensued.

The bones in these caverns have never been mineralized, but are simply in the state of grave-bones, or incrusted by stalactite; and they must have been lodged in their cavities long subsequent to the formation and consolidation of the strata in which the cavities occur. The very interesting fact is stated of the preservation of the bones in the supposed diluvial mud of the cave, so that neither the form nor the substance of them was destroyed; — *even the gelatinable matter of the bones was preserved!!* In other cases, however, where bones have lain a shorter time in diluvial sand instead of argillaceous matter, being exposed to the constant percolation of water, they lost their compactness and gelatine, and fell to pieces on being handled. The teeth and bones of the Kirkdale cave belong to twenty-two species of animals, though probably there are many more; namely,

Carnivora. — The hyæna, tiger, bear, wolf, fox, weasel, and an *incognitum.*

Pachydermata. — The elephant, rhinoceros, horse, and hippopottamus.

Ruminantia. — The ox, and three species of deer.

Rodentia. — The rabbit, water-rat, and mouse.

Birds. — The raven, pigeon, lark, and duck.

The cave was strewed over like a dog-kennel with bones, few of which had escaped fracture, except the very hard bones; such as the astragalus, and bones of the tarsus, metatarsus, and carpus joints. The hyæna's bones have been gnawed and broken equally with those of other animals; and the proportion of this creature's teeth was prodigious, those that were collected by one person alone being the complement of seventy-five individuals. The teeth of the tigers must have belonged to the largest kind, viz. the Bengal or lion tiger. The tusk of a bear was of that sort which Cuvier says must have been of the size of a large horse. — It appears almost certain that the cave of Kirkdale was a den of hyænas. — The fossil-bones of the elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, and hyæna, belong to species now unknown; and of course those of Kirkdale are of an antediluvian origin, as the animals to which these bones belong have never established themselves in the northern regions since the Deluge. — From the great proportion of remains of both large and small aquatic animals, it is probable that there was a *lake in Kirkdale* when the country was thus inhabited;

especially from the form and disposition of the hills which encircle the Vale of Pickering.

To this excellent and elaborate memoir, so rich in information, and so promising of many farther discoveries, are subjoined numerous plates exhibiting the caves, bones, surface of the earth, &c.

On the Difference in the Appearance of the Teeth and the Shape of the Skull in different Parts of Seals. By Sir Everard Home, Bart. — The skull of the large species of Seal from the South Seas differs very much from that of the smaller animals in the Northern Ocean, and the teeth are very unlike. The accessions to geology which have been made by Cuvier, Buckland, and others, are supposed to render these observations at this time interesting; and accordingly three plates accompany this very brief paper, representing the skulls of a seal from the South Seas now in the British Museum, — of another which for thirty summers visited a rock of the Orkney Isles, — and of a third from New Georgia, near the South Pole. In all the three skulls, the teeth differ in form; which may be occasioned by the various kinds of food on which the animals lived.

PART II.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, NATURAL HISTORY, &c.

On the Alloys of Steel. By J. Stodart, Esq. F.R.S., and Mr. M. Faraday, Chemical Assistant in the Royal Institution. — The alloys of steel having proved good when made first on a small scale at the Royal Institution, the manufacture of them in a large way was undertaken, and turned out to be superior to the former. Besides these alloys, also, others were made with palladium, iridium, osmium, and chromium. Titanium could not be reduced, owing to the crucibles constantly failing to bear the necessary temperature; if indeed the metallic ores, or other states of it, are capable of reduction.

Four pounds of steel, with one hundredth part of palladium, afforded a most valuable compound for instruments requiring a perfectly smooth edge: but this operation, for the obvious reason of the scarcity of palladium, could not be transferred from the laboratory of the chemist to the furnace of the manufacturer at Sheffield, which was done for the other alloys.

Equal parts of rhodium and steel furnished a metal of most exquisite polish; the beauty of it is indeed the finest imaginable; and it does not tarnish on exposure to the air. It is especially beautiful for mirrors. The specific gravity of this compound is 9,176.

As a general rule, the best proportion for the alloying metals, (with the exception of silver,) where the object was for edge-tools, was 1-100 of the alloy.

The alloys of steel and silver, and of platina, have been used to a considerable extent in the Mint; and several of the alloys have been made abroad, from which specimens have been sent over to this country, confirming the account of the English chemists.

Among the precautions for making and using the alloys, one is for tempering; which is best performed in a metallic bath, heated for the respective alloys from 70° to 100° of Fahrenheit above the point of temperature required for that of cast steel. A second tempering is not superfluous, as in the case of preparing watch-springs.

Some Observations on the Buffy Coat of the Blood, &c. By John Davy, M. D. — The author of this paper thinks that he has corrected some erroneous observations formerly made, and that farther experience does not warrant the conclusion from modern reasoning that the buffy coat is owing solely to the slow coagulation, and not to the increased tenuity of the blood.

On the Mechanism of the Spine. By Henry Earle, Esq. — We learn that Mr. Earle has particularly observed the mechanism of the spine and spinal marrow in birds, by which a considerable power of motion is gained in the neck without any injury or pressure on a part of such vital importance as the spinal marrow: an extent of motion sufficient to completely compensate for the deficiency of it in the dorsal and lumbar regions, as well as for the total want of any prehensile power in the anterior extremities. Birds have from nine to twenty-four cervical vertebræ, but the mammalia have constantly only seven, with one or two exceptions. Each joint is double, consisting of two synovial cavities; a circumstance not remarked by the most eminent physiologists. The canal of each vertebra is not unlike an hour-glass, the centre being narrowest, and enlarging above and below. — After a comparison of the spinal structure in birds with the structure of the same organ in man, the ingenious writer makes a practical application; namely, that the symptoms of irritation and inflammation of the spinal marrow are of much more serious consequence when the dorsal vertebræ are affected, than when either the cervical or the lumbar vertebræ are the seat of disease. In the former, the slightest congestion or effusion is often productive of serious symptoms, from the canal being smaller and more completely filled with the marrow and its *membranes;* while in the latter description of cases, from the greater capacity of the canal and looseness of the membranes, considerable effusion may exist without at first producing any marked symptoms: more particularly in the lumbar region, where other circumstances concur to render the effect of pressure less sensibly felt. — A plate of the cervical vertebræ of birds is given, with a description.

Of the Nerves which associate the Muscles of the Chest, in the Actions of breathing, speaking, and expression. Being a Continuation of the Paper on the Structure and Functions of the Nerves. By Charles Bell, Esq. — Two sets of hitherto undistinguished nerves, possessing different powers, were examined in a former paper by Mr. Bell; and very distinct effects were produced when the muscles and integuments were deprived of the controlling influence of the one or of the other of these nerves. In the paper before us, the author traces the nerves which influence the motions of the trunk of the body in respiration; and he continues to distinguish the nerves of the thorax according to their use, as he had done with regard to those of the face. Nerves remote in situation are yet united by sympathy with the lungs.

Experiment and observation prove that the seat of that power, which controls the extended act of respiration, is in the lateral portions of the *medulla oblongata*; whence it is continued through certain respiratory nerves which pass out from the neck, and also downwards by corresponding columns of the spinal marrow to the intercostal nerves. The nerves on which the associated actions depend arise very nearly together, from a distinct column of the spinal marrow. 'Behind the *corpus olivare*, and anterior to that process which descends from the *cerebellum*, the *corpus restiforme*, a convex strip of medullary matter, may be observed, and traced down the spinal marrow, betwixt the *sulci*, which give rise to the anterior and posterior roots of the spinal nerves.' From this track of medullary matter, on the side of the *medulla oblongata*, arise in succession, from above downwards, the *portio dura* of the seventh nerve; the *glosso-pharyngeus*; the *par vagum*; the *nervus accessorius ad par vagum*; the phrenic; and the external respiratory nerves. The intercostal nerves, by their relations with the *medulla oblongata*, are equal to the performance of respiration as it regards the office of the lungs: but they are not adequate to those additional functions, which are in a manner imposed on the respiratory apparatus when they are brought to combine in other offices.

'The muscles of the trunk, which are brought in aid of the common respiratory muscles,' are next considered. Those most concerned are the mastoid, the *trapezius*, the *serratus* *magnus anticus*, and the diaphragm, which unite together to enlarge the cavity of the chest in all its diameters. To these muscles alone are the nerves which Mr. Bell calls *respiratory* peculiarly distributed. The anatomy of the respiratory nerves of the trunk, as well as of other parts, cannot be intelligibly abridged. The trunk of the phrenic nerve being irritated, the diaphragm is convulsed; and, being cut across, it is paralyzed: therefore, it is a respiratory nerve.

In a complete hemiplegia, the question occurred whether or not the influence pervaded all the nerves of the side, or only the regular or voluntary nerves.

> 'The respiratory nerve of the face, and the superior respiratory nerve, were entire in their office; and, although the regular system of nerves refused acting, the *sterno-mastoideus* and the *trapezius* partook of their share in the act of respiration. Seeing that the mastoid muscle has two sets of nerves, that one of these is of the class of voluntary nerves, and the other of respiratory nerves, are we not borne out in concluding, that when the head is moved, being a voluntary act strictly, it is performed through the common class of voluntary nerves? that when the chest is raised, it is an act of respiration, and is effected through those nerves which control the muscles in respiration?'

This conclusion is confirmed by an experiment made on an ass. — The author then discusses the utility of a knowlege of the respiratory system of nerves:

> 'The infant born without a brain can breathe if the origin of these nerves be entire. Deep wounds of the brain, though eventually fatal, are not necessarily or instantly so. A man wounded in the spine, below the origin of the nerves which we have traced, drags on existence for a time; but a bruise on the part of the *medulla oblongata*, from which these nerves take their departure, is death in the instant; a breath is not drawn again.'

To elucidate the subject, two dissections are related; one in a case of death on merely turning the head after apparent recovery from a fall on that part. The margin of the occipital hole was found to have been broken, but the pieces were not displaced till, on turning the head subsequently, they closed, and crushed the *medulla oblongata* as it passes out of the skull. — In another case, a man fell dead by an exertion in pushing a wheel-barrow: the tooth-like process of the second vertebra of the neck having burst, from the transverse ligament of the first vertebra.

Respiratory nerves retain their power after the other nerves are dead to the application of stimuli; as, on the approach of death, we witness these nerves continuing their functions, when in other respects the body is inanimate. This well known fact is proved by anatomical examination.

Different nerves are peculiarly affected by certain diseases.

'In tetanus, the voluntary nerves are under influence, and the voluntary motions locked up in convulsions; in hydrophobia, the respiratory system is affected; and hence the convulsions of the throat, the paroxysms of suffocation, the speechless agony, and the excess of expression in the whole frame, while the voluntary motions are free.' —

'The frequency of sudden death, where no corresponding appearances are exhibited in the brain or heart, leads us to consider more attentively the only part of the system through which life can be directly extinguished. In *angina pectoris*, we witness the agony of suffering in this system when the patient survives; and when he dies suddenly, we can imagine it to proceed from an influence extending over these nerves, and interrupting the vital operations. We have seen that a branch of this system may suddenly cease to operate on the corresponding muscles, and that in this way the side of the face may be deprived of all participation in the act of respiration, and all expression be lost. What would result from a more universal defect in the actions of this class of nerves, but sudden death?'

This elaborate and interesting memoir thus concludes:

'Having examined the system of nerves and muscles, which are the agents in respiration, in their fullest extent and in all their bearings; having looked at them in their highest state of complication in the human body, and having traced them upwards, from the animals of simple structure, and then by experiment, and in a manner analytically as well as synthetically, their relations become obvious. Instead of one respiratory nerve, the *par vagum*, the nerve so called, is found to be the central one of a system of nerves of great extent. Instead of the relations of the vital organs of circulation and respiration depending on some supposed influence of the sympathetic nerve, they are found to have an appropriate system.

'This system of nerves, extricated from the seeming confusion in which it lay hitherto encumbered, is found to be superadded to that of mere feeling and agency, attributes common to all animals; through it we see, engrafted as it were, and superadded to the original nature, higher powers of agency corresponding to our condition of mental superiority: these are not the organs of breathing merely, but of natural and articulate language also, and adapted to the expression of sentiment, in the workings of the countenance and of the breast, that is, by signs, as well as by words. So that the breast becomes the organs of the passions, and bears the same relation to the developement of sentiments, as the organs of the senses do to the ideas of sense.'

A plate is annexed, representing the nerves described in the memoir.

We have given a more than usually copious report of this paper, on account of the novelty and very great importance of the matter contained in it. If, indeed, the details (as we believe) are according to nature, Mr. Bell may be said to have contributed the greatest improvement in physiology that has been made during the last half century.

Experiments and Observations on the Newry Pitch-Stone, and its Products, and on the Formation of Pumice. By the Right Hon. George Knox. — Dr. Fitton has published in the Geological Transactions a description of this substance, but he omitted, says Mr. Knox, two remarkable characters; the *smell*, and the strong *oily* taste. On the analysis, it appeared that 100 grains of the Newry pitch-stone contains in 100 parts,

Silex, - - - -	72,800
Alumine, - - - -	11,500
Lime, - - - -	1,120
Protoxide of iron, - - -	3,036
Soda, - - - -	2,857
Water and bitumen, - - -	8,500
	99,813

Observations on the Changes the Egg undergoes during Incubation in the common Fowl; illustrated by microscopical Drawings. By Sir Everard Home, Bart. — John Hunter first demonstrated the vesicle which begins near the rectum and afterward envelopes the embryo. 'The gelatinous molecule, from which the future embryo is to be formed, is originally placed on the surface of the yelk: it is found there before the yelk leaves the ovarium, and lies loose upon it, not being enveloped in any capsule.' The ovarial yelk-bag gives way at the middle line, farthest from the insertion of the blood-vessels, and the yelk drops out into the mouth of the oviduct. The yelk acquires the albumen in its passage along the oviduct. In its progress, the thread-like substances called the chalazes are formed, and terminate in the double membrane; which is added at the time when the egg has reached the enlargement at the lower end of the oviduct. In the cloacus the shell is formed.

Having traced the formation of the egg itself through all the changes that take place, from the time when the yelk leaves the ovarium till it is impregnated, Sir Everard next follows those changes which occur during incubation, till the embryo becomes a completely formed chicken; and he finds that in 20 days the chick is completely formed, the yelk being entirely drawn in. The yelk passed into the intestine a little way above the openings of the cœca.

Some Observations on Corrosive Sublimate. By John Davy, M.D. — It is known that the *liquor hydrargyri oxymuriatis* of the London Pharmacopœia is decompounded by light: but, on trial by the present author, it was ascertained that this effect is not produced on dry oxymuriate of mercury. From a number of experiments, it appeared that those menstrua, which have a strong affinity for corrosive sublimate, prevent its decomposition when exposed to light; (as the muriates, alcohol, and æther;) and on the contrary that those solvents which exercise a weak affinity on it, and have a stronger affinity for muriatic acid, (as water and very dilute muriatic acid,) assist the decompounding power of light.

On the State of Water and Aëriform Matter in Cavities found in certain Crystals. By Sir Humphrey Davy, Bart. — The crystallizations of the vast rocks termed primary, as well as secondary, prove that a very considerable part of the materials of the surface of our globe must have been either in a fluid or an aëriform state: for, otherwise, the regular arrangements of molecules called crystals could not have been produced. The means of this fluidity, however, are not universally settled; some persons maintaining that the fluidity has been occasioned by *fire*, and others concluding that it was effected by *water*. — In Sir H. Davy's experiments, the fluid in the cavities of the crystals was found to be almost pure water; and the air to be azote, unmixed with any other substance. Sir H. observes that the globe of air contracted, on letting it out of the crystals, in some instances one-tenth of its volume. — 'It is very likely that a liquid hydrate of silica would remain under pressure, at high temperatures; and, like all liquid bodies in the atmosphere, would probably contain small quantities of atmospheric air; and such a supposition only is necessary to account for the phænomena presented by the water in rock-crystal and chalcedony.' Aqueous vapor may be considered as having a share in these results in the cavity; and a certain compressing weight may not only impede but altogether counteract the expansive force of heat. Hence, so far from the presence of water being hostile to the idea of the igneous origin of crystalline rocks, it seems to afford a decisive argument in favor of the opinion of the Plutonists.

Some Experiments on the Changes which take place in the fixed Principles of the Egg during Incubation. By W. Prout, M.D. — The subject of incubation, which has been so often investigated, is resumed in this paper, but the inquiry is limited to the fixed principles, namely, the earthy and saline matters; and chiefly to the source whence the earthy matter is derived which forms the skeleton of the chick.

The egg of a domestic fowl weighs from 765 to about 1000 grains, and, when boiled hard, the shell and membranes weigh 107 grains, the albumen 515,3, the yelk 273,4: but much difference occurs in the relative weights of these several parts. — The average weight of the constituent principles of a number of eggs was for the shell and membranes, 106,9 grains; albumen, 604,2; yelk, 288,9. — The specific gravity of new-laid eggs varies from 1,080 to 1,090. — By keeping, eggs lose in weight for a long time about 0,75 grains every 24 hours, and grow lighter, owing to a substitution of air for water, which escapes.

The author's experiments and observations induce him to conclude,

'1. That the relative weights of the constituent principles of different eggs vary very considerably. 2. That an egg loses about one-sixth of its weight during incubation, a quantity amounting to eight times as much as it loses in the same time under ordinary circumstances. 3. That in the earlier stages of incubation, an interchange of principles takes place between the yelk and a portion of the albumen; that this interchange is confined on the part of the yelk to a little of its oily matter, which is found mixed with the above-mentioned albumen; that this portion of the albumen undergoes some remarkable changes, and is converted into a substance analogous in its appearance, as well as in some of its properties, to the curd of milk; and, lastly, that a portion of the watery and saline part of the albumen is found mixed with the yelk, which becomes thus apparently increased in size. 4. That as incubation proceeds, the saline and watery parts again quit the yelk, which is thus reduced to its original bulk; that in the last week of the process it undergoes still further diminution in weight, and loses the greater portion of its phosphorus, which is found in the animal converted into phosphoric acid, and in union with *lime*, constituting its *bony skeleton;* and, lastly, that this lime does not originally exist in the recent egg, but is derived from some unknown source during the process of incubation.'

Dr. P. goes on to observe that the yelk has been considered to be analogous to the milk of viviparous animals, but more concentrated; that its chief use is to afford a pabulum to the young animal during incubation, — an opinion as old as Aristotle; and that one great purpose of the yelk is evidently to furnish the phosphorus, entering as phosphoric acid, into the body of the animal: but that the assertion cannot be safely made that the lime is furnished by a portion of oil in the yelk. He thinks that the lime does not pre-exist in any known state in the recent egg, the only source of it being in the shell; yet there are strong reasons for believing that it cannot be derived from the shell, for the membrane is not vascular,

cular, but like the epidermis, and hence the lime is extra vascular. At the end of incubation, also, a considerable proportion of earthy matter is found in the shell. If the earth, then, be not derived from the shell, it must be formed by transmutation of other matter; which the author considers as possible.

On the Placenta. By Sir Everard Home, Bart.—A fundamental fact on the subject of this paper is that the human ovum was detected in the uterus before it became attached; by which discovery it was ascertained that the rudiments of the placenta were not formed at the same period with the chorion, and were therefore a part of the ovum belonging wholly to the female. Hence it is also ascertained that the placenta, and the changes in the chorion, which in some animals performs the office of the placenta, depend as much on the compound influence of the male and female as the peculiarities of the embryo itself. That the umbilical arteries arise from the branches of the aorta called *iliacæ internæ*, and pass to the navel, where they compound the navel-string, is well known: but in what manner these arteries get through the amnion to come at the chorion has not been satisfactorily explained. This process, Sir Everard Home thinks, must now be admitted to take place by the urinary bladder, on its first formation, bursting the amnion, in the same manner as the vesicle in the embryo of the bird bursts the membrane of the yelk, according to microscopical drawings annexed to a late paper by the learned anatomical author before us.

The office of the placenta being to supply the circulation of the blood in the embryo with materials for the growth of the several organs, and the structure of the placenta being so various in different animals, it seems reasonable to conclude that the separate forms of each genus of animals should have a particular form of placenta; which is the case. Very ingeniously, the author explains that nature employs this difference in the form of placentæ to prevent the confusion from any two genera breeding together: for nature does not afford forms of placentæ intermediate between those of two genera. The mare has no placenta, but a very vascular chorion; and, as the term of utero-gestation is 22 months in the elephant, it is concluded that no placenta exists in this animal.

The lungs are the last parts of the embryo which are formed, and then the demand of blood for them must diminish the supply of blood allotted to the placenta. This cannot happen to a great degree without producing a separation the placenta and chorion, which will be followed by the expulsion of the young. Children prematurely born are blue, and remain so till the circulation through the lungs is quite established.

Sir E. Home concludes this valuable memoir with a specimen of a new mode of classing animals, on the principles laid down respecting the difference in the structure of the placenta.

Observations on the Genus Planaria. By J. R. Johnson, M. D. — The author was induced to make these observations, from two or three species having already been published in the Linnæan Transactions under the genus *Hirudo.* We cannot enter into the details.

Some Experiments and Researches on the Saline Contents of Sea-Water, undertaken with a View to correct and improve its Chemical Analysis. By Alexander Marcet, M.D. — Dr. Marcet conceived it to be reasonable that the sea might be impregnated with every substance in nature; and even with substances theoretically incompatible with each other, provided that the quantities be very minute. The apparently fruitless attempt to detect mercury in sea-water, merely on the credit of a French chemist of the last century, named Rouelle, was the first object: but neither this metal nor iron, nor copper, could be detected. Nitric acid was sought by the delicate new test of gold-leaf added to the bittern and sulphuric acid, but not the least dissolution took place, which happened on introducing a small portion of nitre. Nor did alkalies and alkaline carbonates detect any other earth than magnesia, not even lime; though selenite and a small portion of carbonate of lime were discovered: the latter, by dissolving the deposit with acetic acid and evaporation, and then dissolving the residue in alcohol, thus affording alcoholic solution of muriate of lime.

Carbonate of magnesia could not be found by the most delicate tests: viz. dissolution of the residue on evaporation by dilute muriatic acid, precipitation of the lime, and addition of phosphate of ammonia to the filtered liquor.

Sea-water was found to contain muriate of ammonia, obtained by evaporation and sublimation. The sublimate being again dissolved, and solution of magnesia and phosphoric acid added, a triple phosphate was formed; it afforded white thick clouds on applying muriatic acid vapor close to the neck of a vessel containing the sublimate mixed with potash; and it gave precipitates with muriate of platina and nitrate of silver.

Sulphate of soda could not be detected, as we might have imagined; this salt being incompatible with muriate of soda and sulphate of magnesia, which are known to reside in sea-water: nor can sulphate of soda subsist with muriate of magnesia: and, again, sulphate of lime and muriate of soda cannot subsist with soda, because muriate of lime would be formed, which does not exist in sea-water. Potash is found in the bittern, but also in the salts on evaporation, as appears by appropriate re-agents in the brine; and a triple salt of sulphate of potash and magnesia was also obtained. Muriate of potash remains in the bittern after the separation of the triple sulphate, and may be separated by alcohol, which takes up the magnesian muriate, and leaves behind the sulphate of potash.

The results are, 1. There are no metallic substances in sea-water; nor, 2. Nitrate. 3. It contains sal ammoniac. 4. It holds in solution carbonate of lime. 5. It contains no muriate of lime. 6. It contains a triple sulphate of magnesia and potash.

On the ultimate Analysis of Vegetable and Animal Substances. By Andrew Ure, M.D. — The author of this valuable memoir has contributed largely to the progress of the art of analysis. He observes:

> 'The improvements lately introduced into the analysis of vegetable and animal compounds, with the investigation of the equivalent ratios, in which their constituent elements, carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and azote, are associated, have thrown an unexpected light into this formerly obscure province of chemical science. While the substitution by M. Gay Lussac, of black oxide of copper for the chlorate of potash, has given peculiar facility and elegance to *animal* analysis, it may be doubted whether, in those cases where the main object of inquiry is the proportion of carbon, it has not frequently led to fallacious results. As the quantity of this element is inferred from the volume of carbonic acid evolved in the decomposition of the organic matters, such of their particles as happen not to be in immediate contact with the cupreous oxide will remain unconverted into carbonic acid; and thus the proportion of carbon will be under-rated: an accident which cannot occur with chlorate of potash, since the carbonaceous matter is here plunged in an ignited atmosphere of oxygen. It is probably to this cause that we must refer the discrepant results in different analyses.'

In this elaborate paper, Dr. Ure has endeavored to remove several sources of fallacy attending the use of per-oxide of copper, and to exhibit the results of its application to a considerable number of vegetable and animal compounds.

MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY, &c.

Experiments and Observations on the Developement of magnetical Properties in Steel and Iron by Percussion. By William Scoresby, jun., Esq. — It has been long ascertained that a magnet, when suspended by a string, or in any other manner that will admit of its being thrown into a state of vibration by smart blows, would have its magnetism considerably impaired by such a process, if not wholly destroyed. It was also known that iron, after having been heated and left to cool in a vertical position, or in the direction of the terrestrial dip, would acquire a certain degree of magnetic power; and that the same effect might be produced on steel-bars or steel-wire by percussion, twisting, &c.: but none of the results had yet (with one exception) been given in numbers, nor was perhaps any idea formed of the great magnetic developement that might thus be effected, till the publication of the present paper by Mr. Scoresby.

Some months ago, the Reverend Mr. Powell, rector of Plumstead in Kent, made a series of experiments on the magnetic power impressed on steel-wire, by twisting it first in the direction of the dipping needle, and then in various positions of inclination to that line; and the results thus obtained were remarkably simple and interesting, as they proved that the intensity of the effect was in all cases proportional to the sines of the angle which the wires made with the natural magnetic direction of the earth. Mr. Powell published these results in one of the parts of the "Annals of Philosophy;" and, like the present, they were stated in actual numbers: a practice unfortunately but very recently introduced into the statement of magnetic operations.

It appears from the experiments reported by Mr. Scoresby that, if a steel-bar be set end-wise, or vertically, on a hard substance, particularly iron, and struck on its upper extremity by a hammer, it will immediately exhibit signs of magnetism; and that, by continuing the process, a considerable degree of developement may be obtained, and magnets may thus be formed without any original magnet to commence the operation. — As these experiments may be interesting to many of our readers, we shall give Mr. Scoresby's directions for making magnets according to this process in his own words:

'The strong magnetising effect of percussion on soft steel, induced me to apply the property to the formation of magnets. For this purpose I procured two bars of soft steel, thirty inches long and an inch broad; also six other flat bars of soft steel, eight inches long and half an inch broad, and a large bar of soft iron. The large steel and iron bars were not however absolutely necessary, as common pokers answer the purpose very well; but I was desirous to accelerate the process by the use of substances capable of aiding the developement of the magnetical properties in steel. The large iron bar was first hammered in a vertical position. It was then laid on the ground with its acquired south pole towards the south, and upon this end of it the large steel bars were rested while they were hammered; they were also hammered upon each other. On the summit of one of the large steel bars, each of the small bars, held also vertically, was hammered in succession, and in a few minutes they had all acquired considerable lifting powers. Two of the smaller bars, connected by two short pieces of soft iron in the form of a parallelogram, were now rubbed with the other four bars in the manner of Canton. These were then changed for two others; and these again for the last two. After treating each pair of bars in this way for a number of times, and changing them whenever the manipulations had been continued for about a minute, the whole of the bars were at length found to be magnetised to saturation; each pair readily lifting above eight ounces!

'In accomplishing this object, I took particular care that no magnetic substance was used in the process. All the bars were freed of magnetism before the experiment, so that none of them, not even the largest, produced a deviation of five degrees on the compass at three inches' distance. The hammers were also carefully examined. Any bars which had been strongly magnetised, and had had their magnetisms destroyed or neutralised, (either by hammering, heating, or by the simultaneous contact of the two poles of another magnet placed transversely,) I always found had a much greater facility for receiving polarity in the same direction as before, than the contrary. Hence it generally happened, that one blow with the original north end downward produced as much effect as two or three blows did with the original south end downward.'

Previously to these experiments of Mr. Scoresby, the only means of making magnets that we knew, without such bodies to commence the operation, were those of Mr. Canton, published in most treatises on magnetism, and in all our Encyclopædias: but the method above described is beyond comparison more simple, and unquestionably much more certain; and we are persuaded that it will not be uninteresting to our scientific readers.

On the Geographical Situation of the Three Presidencies, Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, in the East Indies. By J. Goldingham, Esq.—This paper is highly important in a geographical and nautical point of view, as furnishing in all probability the most accurate determination of the longitude of the places stated above: but still it is not such as to require from us any particular notice. Every body knows the difficulty of ascertaining the difference of longitude of places at a great distance from each other, as in the case of London and

Madras, and the value of such information when correctly obtained; because, when this point is once determined for any place, it is readily deduced for every other within certain limits of distance, by means of chronometers, corresponding observations, or geodetic operations. — Mr. G. remarks, that

> ' One of the best methods of determining the position of a point, thus distant from the first meridian, is by eclipses of the satellites of Jupiter. Correspondent observations of eclipses of the sun, of the moon, or of occultations, happen but seldom, and the method by the moon's transit requires, that the position of that luminary should be correctly set down in the Tables; or, in the case of correspondent transits, that the instruments at both places should be most accurately placed in the meridian, and the transits taken with the least possible error of observation; as only a very small error in the Tables, or in the observed place of the moon, may produce a considerable one in the result. But eclipses of the satellites of Jupiter occur often, and correspondent ones with those taken at Greenwich are not *very* unfrequent, even in this distant part of the globe. The observations taken at Greenwich also show the difference or error of the Tables, and, consequently, the error of the longitude deduced from them. Errors also which may arise from a difference in the powers of the telescopes, and in the eyes of observers, as well as from a general difference in the state of the atmosphere, may be counterbalanced by taking a series of these eclipses, consisting of immersions as well as emersions.'

From the long series of observations published in this paper, the author draws the following mean results, which appear to be entitled to a very high degree of credit:

		°	′	″			°	′	″	
Madras, Observatory,	lat.	13	4	9.1	N.	long.	80	17	21	E.
Calcutta, Fort William,	lat.	22	33	0		long.	88	23	39	
Bombay, Church, -	lat.	18	57	44		long.	72	54	43	

Of the Difference of Longitudes found by Chronometer, and by corresponding Eclipses of the Satellites of Jupiter; with some Supplementary Information relative to Madras, Bombay, and Canton; as also the Latitude and Longitude of Point de Galle and the Friar's Hood. By the Same. — We shall limit ourselves, with regard to this paper, to a mere statement of the author's mean results for three of the places mentioned. They are all, and particularly the two latter, highly important data in their relation to nautical science.

		°	′	″			°	′	″	
Point de Galle, - -	lat.	6	0	50	N.	long.	80	17	2	E.
Friar's Hood, - -	lat.	7	29	35		long.	81	36	3¼	
Canton, - -	-	-				long.	113	17	39	

The volume concludes with the usual lists, and a great number of plates.

ART. VII. *Quentin Durward.* By the Author of "Waverley," "Peveril of the Peak," &c. 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* Boards. Hurst and Co. 1823.

THE author of "Waverley" has again set foot on his own peculiar province, the rich domain of romance and chivalry; and

> "*Le donne, i cavalier, l'arme, gli amori,*
> *Le cortesie, l'audaci imprese,*" —

are once more the subjects of that marvellous pen which has been too long occupied with themes less poetical. The "Scotch novels," we think, have never been sufficiently considered with regard to their poetic character, in which, nevertheless, their power and fascination will be found principally to consist; for in almost every other quality their author is equalled, and frequently surpassed, by his brother-novelists. In the delicate and accurate delineation of feeling and manners, he must yield to Richardson; in the pathetic, he cannot compete with Mackenzie; Fielding and Smollett stand unrivalled in wit and humour; in the faithful representation of national character, no one has surpassed Miss Edgeworth; and in the romantic interest of her narratives, Mrs. Radcliffe is pre-eminent. If, however, in all these respects the Scotch novelist may be said to be inferior to the writers whom we have mentioned, a peculiar charm still hangs about his productions, which has rendered his name more widely popular than those of even his most celebrated predecessors; and that charm is the poetical spirit with which all his writings are touched.

The genius which this writer has displayed, in seizing on and appropriating the most poetic incidents and characters, is very remarkable; while the reality and truth, with which he has invested them, display in the fullest manner the extent of his poetical powers. The supernatural, the marvellous, the heroic, the martial, — love, devotion, and tenderness, — are all obedient to his will; and creations arise at his command, which almost assume in our memories the form of substantial realities, for his genius stamps the impression on our minds with a force and a power which all our consciousness of its fictitious nature is unable to resist. In order to illustrate these remarks, in which we trust the feelings of our readers will coincide, we would instance one scene from "Guy Mannering;" — a scene so vividly and impressively painted, that it dwells in our recollection with all the presence of an actual event: — we mean the discovering of the murdered Kennedy, the gauger, at the foot of the lofty cliff from which he had been precipitated. At times, we can scarcely persuade ourselves that we were not present at the scene, and that we did not look on the mangled corpse, witness the horror of the by-standers, and hear the cry of horror from the father, who imagined the fate of his child to be decided by this bloody spectacle. Numerous other examples might be mentioned, but this will be sufficient to explain our meaning.

Among all the Scotch novels, "The Bride of Lammermuir" is in our opinion the most poetical. It is a perfect epic. Every incident has a near reference to the two individuals whose fate is involved in the issue; — misfortune is crowded on misfortune until every hope of extricating the victims is abandoned; — and yet, after all, the catastrophe breaks on us with a shock and violence for which we are totally unprepared. The finest dramatic representation would scarcely, we think, affect us more powerfully than the conclusion of that work; no one but a man conscious of the possession of strong poetic talents would have ventured on the ultimate catastrophe with which the tale closes; and, but for the skill by which the reader's mind has been wrought up, it might even be said to verge on the ludicrous. In our apprehension, however, the death of the "Master of Ravenswood" is one of the most successful touches of the author's art. Many of the characters scattered through his novels bear evident traces of a poet's pencil: Elspeth, Meg Merrilies, Norna, and Fenella, are all the conceptions of a warm fancy and poetical imagination; and they might have appeared in the poems of the author of "Marmion," with the same propriety with which they now fill their places in the novels of the author of "Waverley." The rich descriptive scenes, also, in which the latter works abound, might be clothed with equal success in the harmony of verse.

We are fully aware of the difficulty of expressing ourselves with clearness and precision, on a subject in which so much depends on the feelings of the reader: but we would beg him, for a moment, to compare the Scotch novels with those of a writer who in her own province is almost unrivalled, we mean Miss Austin; and he cannot fail immediately to perceive the strong distinctive characteristics between the two species of composition. Through Miss Austin's pages, we look in vain for a single trace of any thing which can be called poetical: we have the nature of every-day life painted in the liveliest colors; we have variety of character and truth of feeling; we have amusement and instruction: but we have no poetry. The judgment and the heart have done their work, but the imagination and the fancy have taken no part in it. — The same observations may be applied, though perhap their full extent, to Miss Edgeworth's novels, and also to those of Richardson. The fictions of Godwin seem to approach most nearly to the Scotch novels in the quality which we have been endeavoring to point out, but which we confess it is much more easy to feel than to describe.

The subjects, which the author of "Waverley" has of late selected, have unfortunately not been such as afford a full field for the display of his high and characteristic talents. His genius is chivalrous, martial, and romantic; delighting in the pomps and perils of war, in the description of strong passions and of troubled times. When he is about to paint a siege or a tournament, he appears to seize his pen with the same ardor with which a young warrior would place his lance in the rest, and he rushes into the *melée* with the same spirit and delight. Of his former productions, "Ivanhoe" and "Kenilworth" are the best specimens of his excellence in this energetic style; and to those splendid romances may now be added that of 'Quentin Durward.' The scene and the time in this new fiction are happily chosen: for the rich vallies and fortified castles of France present admirable subjects for the exertion of the author's descriptive powers, while history and romance both contribute to the interest with which those times are invested. During the reign of Louis XI., the spirit of chivalry was still at its height, though much of the grossness and darkness of the middle ages had disappeared; and of the history of that time an inimitable chronicle has been left us by Comines, to whose labors the present author is very greatly indebted. The readers of the Sieur d'Argenton will be delighted to find their favorite historian appearing here before them in his own dignified person; while many of the distinguished characters, who figure in his annals, seem restored to a fresher life. At the same time, they will remark that in one or two instances the novelist has not adhered to the text of the historian, as in the death of the Bishop of Liege.

The sovereigns of France at this period maintained in their service a body of Scotchmen, who fulfilled the duties which the Swiss have more recently performed in guarding the royal person, and were distinguished by the name of *Archers of the Guard.* To this circumstance we are perhaps indebted for the volumes before us, since it gave the patriotic novelist an opportunity of selecting the hero from his own countrymen, and of praising the qualities of Scotchmen on various occasions. Quentin Durward, a youthful cadet of a noble Scotish family, wanders abroad in search of honorable service under some foreign banner, and arrives at Plessis-les-Tours, where the French court was then situated. By a train of those useful accidents over which a novelist exercises such sovereign jurisdiction, Quentin excites the notice of Louis XI., who is strolling in the neighbourhood of his court in the disguise of an eminent burgher. Being shortly afterward admitted into the ranks of the Scotish guard, as esquire to his uncle, a distinguished soldier of that body, our hero soon becomes involved in that vortex of intrigue in which the French monarch loved to exist; and he is employed by Louis in sundry dangerous and delicate enterprizes, in all of which he of course conducts himself with wonderful expertness and success. Among his other duties, he is appointed to guard two noble ladies of Burgundy, the Countess Isabelle of Croye and her aunt the Lady Hameline, from the French court to that of the Bishop of Liege, through a country which did not afford much security to the traveller; and the adventures of Quentin and his fair charges during this journey compose not the least important part of the volumes before us. Nor are they few or common. In the short space of two volumes and a half, Quentin Durward has the good fortune to escape from the gallows; to sup with the King; to save the monarch's life; to unhorse the Duke of Orleans; to measure swords with Dunois, the first warrior of France; to outwit a treacherous Bohemian; to see a bishop butchered in his own palace; to rescue the Countess Isabelle; to slay a ferocious freebooter; and to obtain the hand of the Countess as his reward. Beyond his stout arm and heart, however, Quentin Durward is not very remarkable; differing little from those well-made young gentlemen who play the first part in every romance. The heroine may be dismissed with a somewhat similar observation; for she is a very pretty, tender-hearted, grateful, young creature, who quickly becomes sensible to the admiration and gallantry of her guide. In fact, we see and hear too little about the Lady Isabelle; and her relative, the Countess Hameline, is a much more clever sketch. She is a lady verging on that age which, from the doubts existing with respect to it, is *per antiphrasin* commonly called *certain;* and she is therefore exceedingly unwilling to abandon those privileges of coquetry, which she so liberally exercised in her more youthful years. Her chief delight is in relating the "famous passage of arms at Haflingham," which was held in her honor; and which 'lasted three days, cost the lives of two adventurous knights, the fracture of one back-bone, one collar bone, three legs, and two arms, besides flesh-wounds and bruises beyond the herald's counting.' This "famous passage of arms" is introduced rather too frequently; and, like the Lady Margaret Bellenden's royal *dejeuné*, it is attempted to be turned into a joke by iteration.

Among the fictitious personages in the present romance, however, the most original and poetical is decidedly the Zingaro, Bohemian, or Gypsey, Hayraddin; and the wild and mysterious character of the fugitive tribes, to which this outcast belonged, is finely caught and described by the author.* Hayraddin is of an order far higher than the Scotch gypsies of "Guy Mannering:" more daringly lawless, wicked, and perfidious, yet with some of the same redeeming touches of feeling about him. Nothing can be finer than the death-scene of this unrepentant and unbelieving malefactor. — As very proper companions for the Bohemian, we have the Provost-Marshal, Tristan l'Hermite, and his two assistants Petit André and Trois-Eschelles; a worthy *knot* of executioners of the law, not very unlike Master Topham and his followers in "Peveril of the Peak." These are the principal fictitious characters in the present volumes.

With regard to the historical portraits, they are all well executed and interesting. Louis XI. is a very excellent picture. His subtle hypocrisy, his low tastes and sordid habits, and the business-like cruelty of his disposition, which never spared human suffering when he had an object to be gained, are all skilfully introduced, so as to illustrate and influence the narrative. The strong but odious character of this prince is admirably delineated by Comines, in his chapter "on certain Vices and Virtues of King Louis XI.," though few traces of the latter are to be found in it. — Among other distinguished personages who play their parts in this romance, we have the bold and ambitious Charles of Burgundy; the politic historian, the Lord of Argenton; the Lord of Hymbercourt; the stout Dunois; Philip Count de Crevecœur; and, lastly, Master Oliver the King's barber, whose name appears very frequently in the annals of the period.

As the two "finishers of the law," to whom we have above alluded, play considerable parts in the romance, we shall allot them the first place in our quotations:

'Trois-Eschelles was a tall, thin, ghastly man, with a peculiar gravity of visage, and a large rosary round his neck, the use of which he was accustomed piously to offer to those sufferers on whom he did his duty. He had one or two Latin texts continually in his mouth on the nothingness and vanity of human life; and, had it been regular to have enjoyed such a plurality, he might have held the office of confessor to the jail in commendam with that of executioner. Petit-André, on the contrary, was a joyous-looking, round, active, little fellow, who rolled about in execution of his duty as if it was the most diverting occupation in the world. He seemed to have a sort of fond affection for his victims, and always spoke of them in kindly and affectionate terms. They were his poor honest fellows, his pretty dears, his gossips, his good old fathers, as their age or sex might be; and as Trois-Eschelles endeavoured to inspire them with a philosophical or religious regard to futurity, Petit-André seldom failed to refresh them with a jest or two, to make them pass from life as something that was ludicrous, contemptible, and not worthy of serious consideration.

---

* A curious account of the appearance and manners of this remarkable race of people, as they existed in France at the commencement of the seventeenth century, may be found in the "Crudities" of the facetious Tom Coryate. In Spain, these gypsies were called Gitanos. See some account of them in our Number for November last, p. 256.

‘ I cannot tell why or wherefore it was, but these two excellent persons, notwithstanding the variety of their talents, and the rare occurrence of such among persons of their profession, were both more utterly detested than, perhaps, any creatures of their kind, whether before or since; and the only doubt of those who knew aught of them was, whether the grave and pathetic Trois-Eschelles, or the frisky, comic, alert, Petit-André, was the object of the greatest fear or of the deepest execration. It is certain they bore the palm in both particulars over every hangman in France, unless it were perhaps their master, Tristan l'Hermite, the renowned Provost-Marshal, or *his* master, Louis XI.’

The following is the creed of Hayraddin the Bohemian:

‘ While Quentin held the brief communication with the ladies necessary to assure them that this extraordinary addition to their party was the guide whom they were to expect on the King's part, he noticed, (for he was as alert in observing the motions of the stranger, as the Bohemian could be on his part,) that the man not only turned his head as far back as he could, to peer at them, but that, with a singular sort of agility, more resembling that of a monkey than of a man, he had screwed his whole person around on the saddle, so as to sit almost sidelong upon the horse, for the convenience, as it seemed, of watching them more attentively.

‘ Not greatly pleased with this manœuvre, Quentin rode up to the Bohemian, and said to him, as he suddenly assumed his proper position on the horse, “ Methinks, friend, you will prove but a blind guide, if you look at the tail of your horse rather than his ears.”

‘ “ And if I were actually blind,” answered the Bohemian, “ I could guide you through any county in this realm of France, or in those adjoining to it.”

‘ “ Yet you are no Frenchman born,” said the Scot.

‘ “ I am not,” answered the guide.

‘ “ What countryman, then, are you?” demanded Quentin.

‘ “ I am of no country,” answered the guide.

‘ “ How! of no country?” repeated the Scot.

‘ “ No,”

‘ “ No,” answered the Bohemian, “ of none. I am a Zingaro, a Bohemian, an Egyptian, or whatever the Europeans, in their different languages, may chuse to call our people ; but I have no country.”

‘ “ Are you a Christian?” asked the Scotchman. The Bohemian shook his head.

‘ “ Dog,” said Quentin, (for there was little toleration in the spirit of Catholicism in those days,) “ dost thou worship Mahoun?”

‘ “ No,” was the indifferent and concise answer of the guide, who neither seemed offended nor surprised at the young man's violence of manner.

‘ “ Are you a Pagan then, or what are you ?”

‘ “ I have no religion,” answered the Bohemian.

‘ Durward started back; for, though he had heard of Saracens and idolaters, it had never entered into his ideas or belief, that any body of men could exist who practised no mode of worship whatsoever. He recovered from his astonishment to ask where his guide usually dwelt.

‘ “ Wherever I chance to be for the time,” replied the Bohemian. “ I have no home.”

‘ “ How do you guard your property ?”

‘ “ Excepting the clothes which I wear, and the horse I ride on, I have no property.”

‘ “ Yet you dress gaily, and ride gallantly,” said Durward: “ What are your means of subsistence ?”

‘ “ I eat when I am hungry, drink when I am thirsty, and have no other means of subsistence than chance throws in my way,” replied the vagabond.

‘ “ Under whose laws do you live ?”

‘ “ I acknowledge obedience to none, but as it suits my pleasure,” said the Bohemian.

‘ “ Who is your leader, and commands you ?”

‘ “ The father of our tribe — if I chuse to obey him,” said the guide — “ otherwise I have no commander.”

‘ “ You are then,” said the wondering querist, “ destitute of all that other men are combined by — you have no law, no leader, no settled means of subsistence, no house or home. You have, may Heaven compassionate you, no country — and, may Heaven enlighten and forgive you, you have no God ! What is it that remains to you, deprived of government, domestic happiness, and religion ?”

‘ “ I have liberty,” said the Bohemian — “ I crouch to no one — obey no one — respect no one. — I go where I will — live as I can — and die when my day comes.”

‘ “ But you are subject to instant execution, at the pleasure of the judge.”

‘ “ Be it so,” returned the Bohemian ; “ I can but die so much the sooner.”

‘ “ And to imprisonment also,” said the Scot ; “ and where, then, is your boasted freedom ?”

'" In my thoughts," said the Bohemian, " which no chains can bind; while yours, even when your limbs are free, remain fettered by your laws and your superstitions, your dreams of local attachment, and your fantastic visions of civil policy. Such as I are free in spirit when our limbs are chained:—you are imprisoned in mind, even when your limbs are most at freedom."

'" Yet the freedom of your thoughts," said the Scot, " relieves not the pressure of the gyves on your limbs."

'" For a brief time that may be endured; and if within that period I cannot extricate myself, and fail of relief from my comrades, I can always die, and death is the most perfect freedom of all."

' There was a deep pause of some duration, which Quentin at length broke by resuming his queries.

'" Yours is a wandering race, unknown to the nations of Europe:—whence do they derive their origin?"

'" I may not tell you," answered the Bohemian.

'" When will they relieve this kingdom from their presence, and return to the land from whence they came?" said the Scot.

'" When the day of their pilgrimage shall be accomplished," replied his vagrant guide.

'" Are you not sprung from those tribes of Israel which were carried into captivity beyond the great river Euphrates?" said Quentin, who had not forgotten the lore which had been taught him at Aberbrothock.

'" Had we been so," answered the Bohemian, " we had followed their faith, and practised their rites."

'" What is thine own name?" said Durward.

'" My proper name is only known to my brethren.—The men beyond our tents call me Hayraddin Maugrabin, that is, Hayraddin the African Moor."

'" Thou speakest too well for one who hath lived always in thy filthy horde," said the Scot.

'" I have learned some of the knowledge of this land," said Hayraddin.—" When I was a little boy, our tribe was chased by the hunters after human flesh. An arrow went through my mother's head, and she died. I was entangled in the blanket on her shoulders, and was taken by the pursuers. A priest begged me from the Provost's archers, and trained me up in Frankish learning for two or three years."

'" How came you to part with him?" demanded Durward.

'" I stole money from him—even the God which he worshipped," answered Hayraddin with perfect composure; " he detected me, and beat me—I stabbed him with my knife, fled to the woods, and was again united to my people.

'" Wretch!" said Durward, " did you murder your benefactor?"

'" What had he to do to burden me with his benefits?—The Zingaro boy was no house-bred cur to dog the heels of his master, and crouch beneath his blows, for scraps of food.—He was the imprisoned wolf-whelp, which at the first opportunity broke his *chain*, rended his master, and returned to his wilderness."'

We must not neglect to introduce our readers to the renowned William de la Marck, who from his fierceness and brutality had obtained the appellation of The Wild Boar of Ardennes. Having leagued himself with the rebellious citizens of Liege, he succeeds in storming the castle of the Bishop; and, to celebrate his bloody victory, he holds a feast in the episcopal halls. We cannot give the whole description of these fearful revels, which terminate with the death of the unhappy prelate, but the ensuing extract will shew with what power that description is written:

‘ There could hardly exist a more strange and horrible change than had taken place in the castle hall of Schonwaldt since Quentin had partaken of the noontide meal there; and it was indeed one which painted, in the extremity of their dreadful features, the miseries of war — more especially when waged by those most relentless of all agents, the mercenary soldiers of a barbarous age — men, who, by habit and profession, had become familiarized with all that was cruel and bloody in the profession, while they were devoid alike of patriotism and of the romantic spirit of chivalry, — the peculiar virtues, the former of the bold peasants, who fought in defence of their country, and the latter of the gallant knighthood of the period, who combated for honour and their ladies' love.

‘ Instead of the orderly, decent, and somewhat formal meal, at which civil and ecclesiastical officers had, a few hours before, sat mingled in the same apartment, where a light jest could only be uttered in a whisper, and where even amid superfluity of feasting and of wine, there reigned a decorum which almost amounted to hypocrisy, there was now such a scene of wild and roaring debauchery, as Satan himself, had he taken the chair as founder of the feast, could scarcely have improved.

‘ At the head of the table sat, in the Bishop's throne and state, which had been hastily brought thither from his great council-chamber, the redoubted Boar of Ardennes himself, well deserving that dreaded name, in which he affected to delight, and which he did as much as he could think of to deserve. His head was unhelmeted, but he wore the rest of his ponderous and bright armour, which indeed he rarely laid aside. Over his shoulders hung a strong surcoat, made of the dressed skin of a huge wild boar, the hoofs being of solid silver, and the tusks of the same. The skin of the head was so arranged, that, drawn over the casque when the Baron was armed, or over his bare head, in the fashion of a hood, as he often affected when the helmet was laid aside, and as he now wore it, the effect was that of a grinning, ghastly monster; and yet the countenance which it overshadowed scarce required such horrors to improve those which were natural to its ordinary expression.

‘ The upper part of De la Marck's face, as nature had formed it, almost gave the lie to his character; for though his hair, when uncovered, resembled the rude and wild bristles of the hood he had drawn over it, yet an open, high, and manly forehead, broad ruddy cheeks, large, sparkling, light-coloured eyes, and a nose hooked like the beak of the eagle, promised something valiant and generous; yet the effect of these more favourable traits was entirely overpowered by his habits of violence and insolence, which, joined to debauchery and intemperance, had stamped upon the features a character inconsistent with the rough gallantry which they would otherwise have exhibited. The former had, from habitual indulgence, swoln the muscles of the cheeks, and those around the eyes, in particular the latter; evil practices and habits had dimmed the eyes themselves, reddened the part of them that should have been white, and given the whole face a hideous resemblance of the monster, which it was the terrible Baron's pleasure to resemble. But from an odd sort of contradiction, De la Marck, while he assumed in other respects the appearance of the Wild Boar, and even seemed pleased with the name, yet endeavoured, by the length and growth of his beard, to conceal the circumstance that had originally procured him that denomination. This was an unusual thickness and projection of the mouth and upper jaw, which, with the huge projecting side-teeth, gave that resemblance to the bestial creation, which, joined to the delight that De la Marck had in haunting the forest so called, originally procured for him the name of the Boar of Ardennes. The beard, broad, grisly, and uncombed, neither concealed the natural horrors of the countenance, nor dignified its brutal expression.

‘ The soldiers and officers sat around the table, intermixed with the men of Liege, some of them of the very lowest description; among whom Nikkel Blok the butcher, placed near De la Marck himself, was distinguished by his tucked up sleeves, which displayed arms smeared to the elbows with blood, as was the cleaver which lay on the table before him. The soldiers wore, most of them, their beards long and grisly, in imitation of their leader; had their hair plaited and turned upwards, in the manner that might best improve the natural ferocity of their appearance; and intoxicated, as many of them seemed to be, partly with the sense of triumph, and partly with the long libations of wine which they had been quaffing, presented a spectacle at once hideous and disgusting. The language which they held, and the songs which they sung, without even pretending to pay each other the compliment of listening, were so full of license and blasphemy, that Quentin blessed God that the extremity of the noise prevented them from being intelligible to his companion.

‘ It only remains to say of the burghers who were associated with William De la Marck's soldiers in this fearful revel, that the wan faces and anxious mien of the greater part shewed that they either disliked their entertainment, or feared their companions; while some of lower education, or a nature more brutal, saw only in the excesses of the soldier a gallant bearing, which they would willingly imitate, and the tone of which they endeavoured to catch so far as was possible, and stimulated themselves to the task, by swallowing immense draughts of wine and *schwarzbier* — in-

— indulging a vice which at all times was too common in the Low Countries.

‘ The preparations for the feast had been as disorderly as the quality of the company. The whole of the Bishop’s plate — nay, even that belonging to the church, for the Boar of Ardennes regarded not the imputation of sacrilege — were mingled with black jacks, or huge tankards made of leather, and drinking horns of the most ordinary description.

‘ One circumstance of horror remains to be added and accounted for; and we willingly leave the rest of the scene to the imagination of the reader. Amidst the wild license assumed by the soldiers of De la Marck, one who was excluded from the table, (a Lanzknecht, remarkable for his courage and for his daring behaviour during the storm of the evening,) had impudently snatched up a large silver goblet, and carried it off, declaring it should atone for his loss of the share of the feast. The leader laughed till his sides shook at a jest so congenial to the character of the company; but when another, less renowned, it would seem, for audacity in battle, ventured on using the same freedom, De la Marck instantly put a check to a jocular practice, which would soon have cleared his table of all the more valuable decorations. — “ Ho! by the spirit of the thunder!” he exclaimed, “ those who dare not be men when they face the enemy, must not pretend to be thieves among their friends. What! thou frontless dastard thou — thou who didst wait for opened gate and lowered bridge, when Conrade Horst forced his way over moat and wall, must *thou* be malapert? — Knit him up to the staunchions of the hall-window! — He shall beat time with his feet, while we drink a cup to his safe passage to the devil.”

‘ The doom was scarce sooner pronounced than accomplished; and in a moment the wretch wrestled out his last agonies, suspended from the iron bars. His body still hung there when Quentin and the others entered the hall, and, intercepting the pale moonbeam, threw on the castle-floor an uncertain shadow, which dubiously, yet fearfully, intimated the nature of the substance that produced it.’

Nothing can be finer than the scene at the court of Burgundy, when the Duke, learning the murder of the Bishop of Liege, orders Louis XI., then his guest, and always his sovereign, to be detained as his prisoner. Surprising energy and fire are manifested in the whole of this passage. The description of old Lord Crawford, the commander of the Scotish guard, is also inimitable.

‘ “ Alas! my Lord!” said the Count Crevecœur, “ I have it from an eye-witness, an archer of the King of France’s Scotish guard, who was in the hall when the murder was committed by William de la Marck’s order.”

“ And who was doubtless aiding and abetting in the horrible sacrilege,” said the Duke, starting up and stamping with his foot with such fury, that he dashed in pieces the footstool which was placed before him. " Bar the doors of this hall, gentlemen — secure the windows — let no stranger stir from his seat, upon pain of instant death ! — Gentlemen of my chamber, draw your swords." And turning upon Louis, he advanced his own hand slowly and deliberately to the hilt of his weapon, while the King, without either shewing fear or assuming a defensive posture, only said,

' " These news, fair cousin, have staggered your reason."

' " No !" replied the Duke, in a terrible tone, " but they have awakened a just resentment, which I have too long suffered to be stifled by trivial considerations of circumstance and place. Murderer of thy brother ! — rebel against thy parent ! — tyrant over thy subjects ! — treacherous ally ! — perjured King ! — dishonoured gentleman ! — thou art in my power, and I thank God for it !"

' " Rather thank my folly," said the King ; " for when we met on equal terms at Montl'hery, methinks you wished yourself farther from me than we are now."

' The Duke still held his hand on the hilt of his sword, but refrained to draw his weapon, or to strike a foe, who offered no sort of resistance which could in anywise provoke violence.

' Meantime wild and general confusion spread itself through the hall. The doors were now fastened and guarded at the order of the Duke ; but several of the French nobles, few as they were in number, started from their seats, and prepared for the defence of their sovereign. Louis had spoken not a word either to Orleans or Dunois since they were liberated from restraint at the Castle of Loches, if it could be termed liberation to be dragged in King Louis's train, objects of suspicion evidently, rather than of respect and regard ; but, nevertheless, the voice of Dunois was first heard above the tumult, addressing himself to the Duke of Burgundy. — " Sir Duke, you have forgotten that you are a vassal of France, and that we, your guests, are Frenchmen. If you lift a hand against our monarch, prepare to sustain the utmost effects of our despair ; for credit me, we shall feast as high with the blood of Burgundy as we have done with its wine. — Courage, my Lord of Orleans — and you, gentlemen of France, form yourselves round Dunois, and do as he does !"

' It was in that moment when a king might see upon what tempers he could certainly rely. The few independent nobles and knights who attended Louis, most of whom had only received from him frowns or discountenance, unappalled by the display of infinitely superior force, and the certainty of destruction, hastened to array themselves around Dunois, and, led by him, to press towards the head of the table, where the contending princes were seated.

' On the contrary, the tools and agents whom Louis had dragged forward out of their fitting places, into importance which was not due to them, shewed cowardice and cold heart, and remaining still in their seats, seemed resolved not to provoke their fate by intermeddling, whatever might become of their benefactor.

' The first of the more generous party was the venerable Lord Crawford, who, with an agility which no one would have expected at his years, forced his way through all opposition, (which was the less violent, as many of the Burgundians, either from a point of honour, or a secret inclination to prevent Louis's impending fate, gave way to him,) and threw himself boldly between the King and Duke. He then placed his bonnet, from which his white hair escaped in dishevelled tresses, upon one side of his head — his pale cheek and withered brow coloured, and his aged eye lightened with all the fire of a gallant who is about to dare some desperate action. His cloak was flung over one shoulder, and his action intimated his readiness to wrap it about his left arm, while he unsheathed his sword with his right.

' " I have fought for his father and his grandsire," that was all he said, " and, by Saint Andrew, end the matter as it will, I will not fail him at this pinch."

' What has taken some time to narrate happened, in fact, with the speed of light, for so soon as the Duke assumed his threatening posture, Crawford had thrown himself betwixt him and the object of his vengeance; and the French gentlemen, drawing together as fast as they could, were crowding to the same point.

' The Duke of Burgundy still remained with his hand on his sword, and seemed in the act of giving the signal for a general onset, which must necessarily have ended in the massacre of the weaker party, when Crevecœur rushed forward, and exclaimed in a voice like a trumpet, — " My liege Lord of Burgundy, beware what you do! This is *your* hall — you are the King's vassal — do not spill the blood of your guest on your hearth, the blood of your sovereign on the throne you have erected for him, and to which he came under your safeguard. For the sake of your house's honour, do not attempt to revenge one horrid murder by another yet worse!"

' " Out of my road, Crevecœur," answered the Duke, " and let my vengeance pass! — Out of my path! — The wrath of kings is to be dreaded like that of Heaven."

' " Only when, like that of Heaven, it is *just*," answered Crevecœur, firmly. — " Let me pray of you, my Lord, to rein the violence of your temper, however justly offended. — And for you, my lords of France, where resistance is unavailing, let me recommend you to forbear whatever may lead towards bloodshed."

' " He is right," said Louis, whose coolness forsook him not in that dreadful moment, and who easily foresaw, that if a brawl should commence, more violence would be dared and done in the heat of blood, than was like to be attempted if peace were preserved. — " My cousin Orleans — kind Dunois — and you, my trusty Crawford — bring not on ruin and bloodshed by taking offence too hastily. Our cousin the Duke is chafed at tidings of the death of a near and loving friend, the venerable Bishop of Liege, whose slaughter we lament as he does. Ancient, and, unhappily, recent subjects of jealousy, lead him to suspect us of having abetted a crime which our bosom abhors. Should our host murder us on this spot — us, his King and his kinsman, under a false impression of our being accessories to this unhappy accident, our fate will be little lightened, but, on the contrary, greatly aggravated by your stirring. — Therefore, stand back, Crawford: — were it my last word, I speak as a king to his officer, and demand obedience: — stand back, and, if it is required, yield up your sword. I command you to do so, and your oath obliges you to obey."

' "True, true, my Lord," said Crawford, stepping back, and returning to the sheath the blade he had half-drawn: "it may be all very true; but by my honour, if I were at the head of threescore and ten of my brave fellows, instead of being loaded with more than the like number of years, I would try whether I would have some reason out of these fine gallants, with their golden chains and looped-up bonnets, with braw-warld dyes and devices on them."

' The Duke stood with his eyes fixed on the ground for a considerable space, and then said, with bitter irony, "Crevecœur, you say well; and it concerns our honour, that our obligations to this great King, our honoured and loving guest, be not so hastily adjusted, as in our hasty anger we had at first purposed. We will so act, that all Europe shall acknowledge the justice of our proceedings. — Gentlemen of France, you must render up your arms to my officers! Your master has broken the truce, and has no title to take further benefit of it. In compassion, however, to your sentiments of honour, and in respect to the rank which he hath disgraced, and the race from which he hath degenerated, we ask not our cousin Louis's sword."

' "Not one of us," said Dunois, "will resign our weapon, or quit this hall, unless we are assured of at least our King's safety, in life and limb."

' "Nor will a man of the Scottish guard," exclaimed Crawford, "lay down his arms, save at the command of the King of France, or his High Constable."

' "Brave Dunois," said Louis, "and you, my trusty Crawford, your zeal will do me injury instead of benefit. — I trust," he added with dignity, "in my rightful cause, more than in a vain resistance, which would but cost the lives of my best and bravest. — Give up your swords — the noble Burgundians, who accept such honourable pledges, will be more able than you are to protect both you and me. — Give up your swords: — it is I who command you."

' It was thus that, in this dreadful emergency, Louis shewed the promptitude of decision, and clearness of judgment, which alone could have saved his life. He was aware, that until actual blows were exchanged, he would have the assistance of most of the nobles present to moderate the fury of their prince; but that were a *melée* once commenced, he himself and his few adherents must be instantly murdered. At the same time his worst enemies confessed, that his demeanour had in it nothing either of meanness or cowardice. He shunned to aggravate into frenzy the wrath of the Duke; but he neither deprecated nor seemed to fear it, and continued to look on him with the calm and fixed attention with which a brave man eyes the menacing gestures of a lunatic, whilst conscious that his own steadiness and composure operate as an insensible and powerful check on the rage even of insanity.

‘ Crawford, at the King's command, threw his sword to Crevecœur, saying, “ Take it! and the devil give you joy of it.—It is no dishonour to the rightful owner who yields it, for we have had no fair play.” ’

In opposition to the old rule which directs that we should *commencer par le commencemant*, we shall conclude our report of ‘ Quentin Durward’ with a remark on the introduction, which is more lively than the usual *prolegomena* to this writer's novels. It contains a sort of denial of the identity of the author of “ Waverley” with Sir Walter Scott: but *credat Judæus.*— We think that we can trace, in the concluding expressions of the Marquis, one of the reasons which have probably induced the author of these captivating productions to suffer them to remain so long unowned.

‘ “ You will be entertained with my poor La Jeunesse,” said the Marquis de Hautlieu to the author, “ who, by the way, is ten years older than I am (the Marquis is above sixty):—he reminds me of the player in the *Roman Comique*, who acted a whole play in his own proper person—he insists on being maitre d'hotel, maitre de cuisine, valet-de-chambre, a whole suite of attendants in his own poor individuality. He sometimes reminds me of a character in the Bridle of Lammermore, which you must have read, as it is the work of one of your *gens de lettres, qu'on appellent* (*appelle*), *je crois, le Chevalier Scott.*”

‘ “ I presume you mean Sir Walter?”

‘ “ Yes — the same — the same,” said the Marquis; “ I always forget names which commence *avec cette lettre impossible.*”

‘ We were now led away from more painful recollections; for I had to put my French friend right in two particulars. In the first I prevailed with difficulty; for the Marquis, though he disliked the English, yet having been three months in London, piqued himself in understanding the most intricate difficulties of our language, and appealed to every dictionary, from Florio downwards, that *la Bride* must mean the Bridle. Nay, so sceptical was he on this point of philology, when I ventured to hint that there was nothing about a bridle in the whole story, he, with great composure, and little knowing to whom he spoke, laid the whole blame of that inconsistency on the unfortunate author. I had next the common candour to inform my friend, upon grounds which no one could know so well as myself, that my distinguished literary countryman, of whom I will [shall] always speak with the respect his talents deserve, was not responsible for the slight works which the humour of the public had too generously, as well as too rashly ascribed to him. Surprised by the impulse of the moment, I might even have gone further, and clenched the negative by positive evidence, owning to my entertainer that no one else could possibly have written these works, since I myself was the author, when I was saved from so far rash a commitment of myself by the calm reply of the Marquis, that he was glad to hear these sort of trifles were not written by a person of condition. "We read them," he said, "as we listen to the pleasantries of a comedian, or our ancestors to those of a professed family-jester, with a good deal of amusement, which, however, we should be sorry to derive from the mouth of one who has better claims to our society."'

We must again express our regret at the inaccuracy of the language in which these productions are clothed. The pertinacious usage of *scarce* for *scarcely*, the constant recurrence of *will* and *would* for *shall* and *should*, 'his safety shall be *cared for*,' 'the fleetest foot (that) ever pressed,' and a hundred other Scoticisms and ungrammaticisms, really call on us to apprize foreigners especially that they are not to regard these popular works as samples of *good English*; and they will easily detect examples of *bad French*, such as *on appellent*, and *jardin Angloise*, twice occurring in the Introduction.

Art. VIII. *Elia.* Essays which have appeared under that Signature in the London Magazine. Crown 8vo. pp. 341. 9*s*. 6*d*. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1823.

We believe that the real author of this very excentric and not unentertaining volume is decidedly too much in the broad light of the public eye, to indulge any wish or to have any chance of really sheltering himself under an anonymous title-page, or in the more quaint disguise of *Elia.* He cannot pretend to the least affectation or mystery about a name; nor will he wrap himself up in important secrecy, or arrogate any sounding and euphonious adjuncts, in derision of the sober and veritable appellative given to him by his god-father and god-mother.

When we had cast a glance at 'The South-Sea House,' which was the first to greet us in this series of papers, and reverted to the signature, we were at no loss in deciding to whom we should ascribe the production, although *some* of our friends were hardy enough to debate the point. Whose, we observed, is this flow of original thought, this depth of feeling, this wise and playful humanity, this vein of mixed humor and melancholy running through every line, — yea, the very imagery and prose-painting which we here behold, — whose, — if they belong not to Charles Lamb?; — the clerk of the "Old Company" of English wits and poets, — the registrar of their transactions, — their play-house reporter, giving us their true parts, — and the Hogarth of our modern scribes, "a right humorous man." Here we have his marked genius and peculiarities fully brought out, and stamped o every page: — the "*aut Erasmus aut diabolus*" was neve more clearly seen. Yet we could not have made this discovery some years ago; for time was when we were apt to confound the literary features of Mr. Charles Lloyd with those o Mr. Charles Lamb. Nor was this a mere mistake or delusion there must have been some resemblance between the partie to give rise to it, more than the similarity of name, because we have heard it also remarked more than once by others. "I it Charles Lloyd, or Charles Lamb, of whom you were speaking, — whose is the last publication, — for I never know the difference?" The two Charles's puzzled us more than eve school-boy was puzzled between the reign of any Charles's o any nation or any age. Thanks at last, however, to our commentating labors and improved critical acumen, we hav triumphed over the difficulty; we have learnt to draw hairbreadth distinctions and differences; and, whatever be the bonds of mental amity and alliance between these brethren o the same literary faith and persuasion, we regard them not: — we can distinguish an "elephant from a cloud," can describe it "in good set terms," and can trace the characteristi difference between the styles of the one C. L. and the othe C. L., which have not, in reality, so many points in common We find in both, indeed, the same kind and candid judgment of men and things, — the same warm and quick feelings, amounting to a degree of morbid suffering, — and the same extravagant and somewhat excentric views of life, huma passions, and human events. In both, likewise, we may observe a loose, unconnected, and uncontrollable flow of thought and sensations; which, if it does not sometimes run away wit their better judgments, casts a wild and singular air of romance and improbability over their writings.

Not attempting farther comparison, we have now to remar that Mr. Lamb will here be found to add to his other merit a rich but peculiar fund of drollery; which, though not absolutely amounting to wit, has a fine comic flavor in it that i is difficult to resist. Thus, though there is much that instructs, there is more that amuses in these lucubrations While we allow that they display indisputable marks of genius, they are so whimsically blended with the peculiarities o the author's school, (a school of affected nature and humorous simplicity,) and so dashed with quaintness and conceit, though of a harmless kind, that we cannot resist thei influence; and, much as we like their character, we mus sometimes indulge a laugh AT as well as WITH the author.

his higher and more contemplative moods, however, and when he pours forth all the wealth of his observant, acute, and metaphysical mind, his remarks are always intitled to our serious regard and consideration. To these characteristics we may add that, under a deep vein of pathetic eloquence and powerful appeals both to the heart and the intellect of his readers, there runs a finer one of original humor; — a sort of simple shrewdness and caustic irony, such as we have occasionally known to baffle, in the shape of a simple witness, some keen-set and veteran practitioner of law. While the native ease and artlessness of his language and manner are well calculated to win our attention, his arguments are quite free from a narrow or dogmatical spirit; and he has nothing in him of the bitter and virulent character of a controversial or party-writer. We should fancy, indeed, that the elements are so kindly mixed up in him, as never yet to have permitted "the sun to go down upon his *literary* anger;" and the "*suaviter in modo*" prevails to such a degree, that his very shafts of ridicule and satire appear to have been dipped in honey instead of gall, and to have been aimed rather by the sportiveness of "Momus and his crew," than for the sake of wreaking vengeance on "the time's abuses." Thus he never

"Opens the vent-peg of his wrath,
To let the stream of his revenge run clear,"

not even against the severity of his old masters, or the worse tyranny of his monitors, as recorded in the recollections of his pupilage at Christ's Hospital. — A short instance of this feeling is worth giving, we think, in the following extract from the paper intitled 'Christ's Hospital'; whence it appears that the more aristocratic countenance afforded to his friend L. saved him from much of the like tyranny:

'L.'s governor (so we called the patron who presented us to the foundation) lived in a manner under his paternal roof. Any complaint which he had to make was sure of being attended to. This was understood at Christ's, and was an effectual screen to him against the severity of masters, or worse tyranny of the monitors. The oppressions of these young brutes are heart-sickening to call to recollection. I have been called out of my bed, and *waked for the purpose*, in the coldest winter nights — and this not once, but night after night — in my shirt, to receive the discipline of a leathern thong, with eleven other sufferers, because it pleased my callow overseer, when there has been any talking heard after we were gone to bed, to make the six last beds in the dormitory, where the youngest children of us slept, answerable for an offence they neither dared to commit nor had the power to hinder. — The same execrable tyranny drove the younger part of us from the fires, when our feet were perishing with snow; and, under the cruelest penalties, forbad the indulgence of a drink of water, when we lay in sleepless summer nights, fevered with the season, and the day's sports.

‘There was one H——, who, I learned, in after days, was seen expiating some maturer offence in the hulks. (Do I flatter myself in fancying that this might be the planter of that name, who suffered —— at Nevis, I think, or St. Kitts, —— some few years since? My friend Tobin was the benevolent instrument of bringing him to the gallows.) This petty Nero actually branded a boy, who had offended him, with a red hot iron; and nearly starved forty of us, with exacting contributions to the one half of our bread, to pamper a young ass, which, incredible as it may seem, with the connivance of the nurse's daughter (a young flame of his), he had contrived to smuggle in, and keep upon the leads of the *ward*, as they called our dormitories. This game went on for better than a week, till the foolish beast, not able to fare well but he must cry roast meat—happier than Caligula's minion, could he have kept his own counsel—but, foolisher, alas! than any of his species in the fables—waxing fat, and kicking, in the fulness of bread, one unlucky minute would needs proclaim his good fortune to the world below; and, laying out his simple throat, blew such a ram's horn blast, as (toppling down the walls of his own Jericho) set concealment any longer at defiance. The client was dismissed, with certain attentions, to Smithfield; but I never understood that the patron underwent any censure on the occasion. This was in the stewardship of L.'s admired Perry.'

Among the great variety of subjects introduced in this volume, a few of the first efforts are on the whole the most successful; at least, none that follow completely come up to the favorable expectations which we had entertained from a perusal of ‘The South-Sea House,' ‘Christ's Hospital,' ‘Mrs. Battle's Opinions on Whist,' ‘All Fools' Day,' and ‘The Old and the New Schoolmaster.' Out of a series of more than a dozen, we could mention only two, ‘A Complaint of the Decay of Beggars in the Metropolis,' and ‘A ‘Complaint of a Bachelor, on the Behaviour of Married People,' (and, perhaps, the essay ‘On some of the Old Actors,') that by any means deserve to be placed in competition with the preceding.

Yet we venture to pronounce that the papers which we have thus distinguished are by no means the favorites with the author himself. From the singularity of some of his subjects, as well as his manner of treating them, we are led to conjecture that his ‘Chapter on Ears,' ‘Imperfect Sympathies,' ‘My Relations,' ‘Witches and other Night Fears,' ‘Dream-Children,' and ‘A Dissertation upon Roast Pig,' howsoever transcending our own relish and comprehension, may stand among the foremost in the author's own esteem. They have all the peculiarities and excesses, all the metaphysical conjectures and dreamings, of his genius, with not a little of the egotism and quaintness of manner in which he loves to indulge. It will not be unamusing to give our readers an example of these singularities from the 'Chapter on Ears,' in which much of the cleverness and humor of the author's style may likewise be discovered:

'I am constitutionally susceptible of noises. A carpenter's hammer, in a warm summer noon, will fret me into more than midsummer madness. But those unconnected unset sounds are nothing to the measured malice of music. The ear is passive to those single strokes; willingly enduring stripes, while it hath no task to con. To music it cannot be passive. It will strive—mine at least will—'spite of its inaptitude, to thrid the maze; like an unskilled eye painfully poring upon hieroglyphics. I have sat through an Italian Opera, till, for sheer pain, and inexplicable anguish, I have rushed out into the noisiest places of the crowded streets, to solace myself with sounds which I was not obliged to follow, and get rid of the distracting torment of endless, fruitless, barren attention! I take refuge in the unpretending assemblage of honest common-life sounds;—and the purgatory of the enraged musician becomes my paradise.

'I have sat at an Oratorio (that profanation of the purposes of the cheerful playhouse) watching the faces of the auditory in the pit (what a contrast to Hogarth's Laughing Audience!) immoveable, or affecting some faint emotion,—till (as some have said that our occupations in the next world will be but a shadow of what delighted us in this) I have imagined myself in some cold theatre in Hades, where some of the *forms* of the earthly one should be kept up, with none of the *enjoyment*; or like that

'—— Party in a parlour,
All silent, and all DAMNED!

'Above all, those insufferable concertos, and pieces of music, as they are called, do plague and embitter my apprehension.—Words are something; but to be exposed to an endless battery of mere sounds; to be long a dying, to lie stretched upon a rack of roses; to keep up languor by unintermitted effort; to pile honey upon sugar, and sugar upon honey, to an interminable tedious sweetness; to fill up sound with feeling, and strain ideas to keep pace with it; to gaze on empty frames, and be forced to make the pictures for yourself; to read a book, *all stops*, and be obliged to supply the verbal matter; to invent extempore tragedies to answer to the vague gestures of an inexplicable rambling mime—these are faint shadows of what I have undergone from a series of the ablest-executed pieces of this empty *instrumental music*.'

However unnatural and cruel all this may appear to the lovers of Kalkbrenner and Beethoven, we would not have them believe that Mr. L. is really the irreclaimable, unsusceptible, lost being that some anti-euphonists are pleased to describe themselves. The nerves of his *tympanum* are only too finely strung, and an Oratorio acts on them like a battery: he has actually "music in his soul," but it lies "as deep as a draw-well;" and the pangs which it gives him to draw it forth, by the process of a bass viol or a *concerto*, absolutely drive him to seek solace in the heathenish sounds of "rushing chariots and church bells."

It would not be doing justice to the manifold good qualities of our friend Elia, if we confined ourselves to *any one* of his moods; for we should behold him in his more pathetic and eloquent, in his lively and humorous, and even in his atrabilious as well as his excentric moments, to form a just idea of his merits. Though we cannot go through the whole exhibition, we shall now quote a passage of a more impressive character from his remarks on 'A Quaker's Meeting,' which have much of a mixed air of solemnity and humor, such as we are fond of attributing to Shakspeare's Malvolio, — flashes of conceit breaking through the importance and dignity of his deportment:

> 'Dost thou love silence deep as that "before the winds were made?" go not out into the wilderness; descend not into the profundities of the earth; shut not up thy casements; nor pour wax into the little cells of thy ears, with little-faith'd self-mistrusting Ulysses. — Retire with me into a Quaker's Meeting.
>
> 'For a man to refrain even from good words, and to hold his peace, it is commendable; but for a multitude, it is great mastery.
>
> 'What is the stillness of the desert, compared with this place? what the uncommunicating muteness of fishes? — here the goddess reigns and revels. — "Boreas, and Cesias, and Argestes loud," do not with their inter-confounding uproars more augment the brawl! — nor the waves of the blown Baltic with their clubbed sounds — than their opposite (Silence her sacred self) is multiplied and rendered more intense by numbers, and by sympathy. She too hath her deeps, that call unto deeps. Negation itself hath a positive more and less; and closed eyes would seem to obscure the great obscurity of midnight.
>
> 'There are wounds, which an imperfect solitude cannot heal. By imperfect I mean that which a man enjoyeth by himself. The perfect is that which he can sometimes attain in crowds, but nowhere so absolutely as in a Quaker's Meeting. — Those first hermits did certainly understand this principle, when they retired into Egyptian solitudes, not singly, but in shoals, to enjoy one another's want of conversation. The Carthusian is bound to his brethren by this agreeing spirit of incommunicativeness. In secular occasions, what so pleasant as to be reading a book through a long winter evening, with a friend sitting by — say, a wife, — he, or she, too, (if that be probable,) reading another, with

out interruption, or oral communication?—can there be no sympathy without the gabble of words?—away with this inhuman, shy, single, shade-and-cavern-haunting solitariness. Give me, Master Zimmerman, a sympathetic solitude.

'To pace along in the cloisters, or side aisles of some cathedral, time-stricken;

'Or under hanging mountains,
Or by the fall of fountains;

is but a vulgar luxury, compared with that which those enjoy, who come together for the purposes of more complete, abstracted solitude. This is the loneliness "to be felt."—The Abbey Church of Westminister hath nothing so solemn, so spirit-soothing, as the naked walls and benches of a Quaker's Meeting. Here are no tombs, no inscriptions,

'—— sands, ignoble things,
Dropt from the ruin'd sides of kings:—

but here is something, which throws Antiquity herself into the fore-ground—SILENCE—eldest of things—language of old Night—primitive Discourser—to which the insolent decays of mouldering grandeur have but arrived by a violent, and, as we may say, unnatural progression.

'How reverend is the view of these hushed heads,
Looking tranquillity!'

As of an opposite character to this, and discovering much of that comprehensive and reflective genius under the mask of good-natured irony which is quite the author's tact, we may adduce the following, from the opening of 'All Fools' Day;' which, though not one of the happiest papers, is, as the French would say, full of *onction:*

'The compliments of the season to my worthy masters, and a merry first of April to us all!

'Many happy returns of this day to you—and you—and *you*, Sir—nay, never frown, man, nor put a long face upon the matter. Do not we know one another? what need of ceremony among friends? we have all a touch of *that same*—you understand me—a speck of the motley. Beshrew the man who on such a day as this, the *general festival*, should affect to stand aloof. I am none of those sneakers. I am free of the corporation, and care not who knows it. He that meets me in the forest to-day shall meet with no wise-acre, I can tell him. *Stultus sum.* Translate me that, and take the meaning of it to yourself for your pains. What, man, we have four quarters of the globe on our side, at the least computation.

'Fill us a cup of that sparkling gooseberry—we will drink no wise, melancholy, politic Port on this day—and let us troll the catch of Amiens—*duc ad me—duc ad me*—how goes it?

'Here shall he see
Gross fools as he.

'Now would I give a trifle to know historically and authentically, who was the greatest fool that ever lived. I would certainly give him in a bumper. Marry, of the present breed, I think I could without much difficulty name you the party.

'Remove your cap a little further, if you please; it hides my bauble. And now each man bestride his hobby, and dust away his bells to what tune he pleases. I will give you, for my part,

'—— The crazy old church clock,
And the bewildered chimes.

'Good master Empedocles, you are welcome. It is long since you went a salamander-gathering down Ætna. Worse than samphire-picking by some odds. 'Tis a mercy your worship did not singe your mustachios.

'Ha! Cleombrotus! and what salads in faith did you light upon at the bottom of the Mediterranean? You were founder, I take it, of the disinterested sect of the Calenturists.

'Gebir, my old free-mason, and prince of plasterers at Babel, bring in your trowel, most Ancient Grand! You have claim to a seat here at my right hand, as patron of the stammerers. You left your work, if I remember Herodotus correctly, at eight hundred million toises, or thereabout, above the level of the sea. Bless us, what a long bell you must have pulled, to call your top workmen to their nuncheon on the low grounds of Sennaar. Or did you send up your garlick and onions by a rocket? I am a rogue if I am not ashamed to show you our Monument on Fish-street Hill, after your altitudes. Yet we think it somewhat.

'What! the magnanimous Alexander in tears?—cry, baby, put its finger in its eye, it shall have another globe, round as an orange, pretty moppet!

'Mister Adams ——'odso, I honour your coat—pray do us the favour to read to us that sermon, which you lent to Mistress Slipslop—the twenty and second in your portmanteau there—on Female Incontinence—the same—it will come in most irrelevantly and impertinently seasonable to the time of the day.'

We must not omit another word on the last paper but two, 'On some of the Old Actors,' which contains several excellent portraits of deceased sons of Thespis. They are quite in the style and feeling of the past age, whose comic heroes are nearly all become "GRAVE men," but whose exquisite "good parts" are still fresh and vivid in the tablet of Elia's brain: their features, become only more rich and mellowed by time, seem to glow with all the hues of life; and again they seem to play their parts before us. Nothing, we think, can convey a clearer and happier idea of the stage-faces of the famous Suett and his companion old Jack Bannister. We have not time, however, for farther comment.—On the whole, the reading portion of the public ought to feel itself indebted even for a second perusal of these essays, according to the modern plan of re-publication in a collective form; which is in fact becoming a nuisance with nearly the whole of the periodical press.

It is scarcely worth while again to touch on Mr. L.'s peculiar defects, which are well known, and must strike every person at a glance.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JUNE, 1823.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 9. *A Sabbath among the Mountains.* A Poem, in Two Parts. Crown 8vo. pp. 45. Oliver and Boyd, Edinburgh; Whittakers, London. 1823.

We are informed that the author's object, in this little poem, 'is not so much to describe the general characters of a Scottish Sabbath, as to sketch the peculiar features of one which he spent at a particular place. An eminent stranger assisted the minister of the parish in the public service, and a distinguished clergyman of the sister-church addressed the Sabbath-school.' In consequence, three clergymen are introduced to our notice during the Sabbath: but, as they merely gave their assistance to the Scotch incumbent in his parish-duties, and do not here favor us with their several prayers and sermons, our readers need not suppose that we are about to renew the service for "their special help and edification."

Though, however, *our* charge on this occasion is of a less noble and edifying, it is not of a less pleasing and gratifying character; for we are enabled to speak of this little work in terms of real commendation. It displays a poetical tone, and much poetical description of the objects, scenery, and characters connected with a mountain-Sabbath, simply and pleasingly expressed, without any narrow and uncharitable views and feelings, or any attempt at fine writing and display. Though it does not exhibit powers of the first order, we could mention many passages, even in the limited number of pages of which the whole consists, that would justify the favorable opinion here expressed. Of such a tendency is the opening of the poem, with a description of morning and of public worship:

> ' Though sin has marr'd the beauty of the robe,
> That shone so fair upon the infant globe,
> When earth of angels might have been the seat,
> And man for angels a companion meet;
> Though it has usher'd pestilence and war,
> Obscured the mid-day sun and morning star,
> Condemn'd the bright descendant of the sky,
> To err, to toil, to sorrow, and to die,
> Yet are there bright spots in the waste that shine,
> Memorials of an origin divine,

Moments of mercy shadowing not in vain,
That man to glory shall arise again:
Of these the chief — the still, the holy hour,
That Sabbath-morning wings with healing power.
'There is an isle by balmy breezes blest,
A green gem in the ocean of the west,
Where first the spring unfolds the mountain-flower,
And summer lingers longest in the bower.
Bright ocean-lakes the favour'd shores surround,
Waving in sun-light like a zone unbound,
Stretching afar among romantic hills,
Till to the charmed eye they seem like rills.
Groves of unsullied verdure fringe the land,
Whose branches cast their shadows on the strand,
Or are within the liquid-mirror seen,
In forms more lovely and a softer green.
Smooth as the summer-sea the valley lies,
The little hills like summer-billows rise,
Succeeding still in gentle interchange,
Amid the garden or the woodland range;
Till nature seems the work of matchless art,
And art like nature steals upon the heart.'

The picture of the mountaineers, the chiming of the matin bells, the procession of the children, the simple service, and the voice of hymns and prayer which reaches the traveller at a distance, with the tribute of affectionate feelings and sympathy expressed by the poet in all the joys and sorrows of his lowly but pious countrymen, ('the dwellers among the hills,') form an union of natural and moral objects at once soothing and reviving to the spirit: at least, so we feel it in "certain moods of the mind." — Thus the following, if we deduct some grains of strong national bias and partiality, is calculated to impress us with a favorable opinion of the author's moral and intellectual qualities, and to render practical service to the cause of virtue and piety:

'Long, Scotland, in thy cots these airs be heard,
Sung to the sweetest song of Judah's bard;
Long may thy sires like Hebrew seer pray,
By the first gleam of dawn, and close of day;
From scenes like these, thy sons have issued forth,
In honour clear, and strong in native worth;
Like the lark springing from his lowly seat,
Have warbled to the sky in numbers sweet,
Have twined the fairest wreaths thy brow around,
That e'er the temples of the poet bound;
Or in philosophy have earn'd a name,
The first in science, and the first in fame.
Oh! my loved native land, thy Sabbath-lore
Makes thee respected on a distant shore,
More than thy glory in the tented field,
Or stainless honour, freedom's guardian shield.

Thy son is by the knowledge from above,
Attach'd to thee with more than filial love,
And thy sweet Sabbath-recollections give
Peace to his soul — in bonds or exile live.
'Again to breathe the fragrant mountain-balm
Of Sabbath-morn, when all is holy calm,
Again to occupy his empty seat
For morning-worship, when his kindred meet;
Again to join the heavenward hymn of praise,
That dear familiar voices sweetly raise;
Again to listen to a father's prayer,
Then to the temple of his youth repair —
These visions are his joy, they cheer the path
Of peril, or of famine, or of death;
Support his spirit, doom'd afar to roam,
And with the light of promise call him home.
'That morn the isle with expectation bright,
Its people pours from valley and from height.
The tartan'd maidens, link'd in rosy wreath,
Glitter like sun-beams from the mountain-heath.
There the fair infant group, a mother's pride,
Collect the wild flowers by the pathway side;
Or gathering round her, arm in arm entwine,
By her attracted, in her radiance shine.
In straggling bands the aged men appear,
Like venerable patriarchs in the rear,
And, to the customs of their country true,
Robed in the mountain-plaid, and bonnet blue,
Strong in the Scriptures, though in humble guise,
Unletter'd sages — by the evangile wise;
Men who, by toil, a scanty pittance earn,
Yet mitred heads from their discourse might learn.'

We must particularly mention, also, some fervent and energetic lines in celebration of the heroism and sufferings of the Scotch Covenanters and Reformers, which the reader will find at p. 39. *et seq.*

Art. 10. *Clontarf;* a Poem. By William Hamilton Drummond, D.D. M.R.I.A. 12mo. pp. 83. Dublin, Archer and Co. 1822.

Though a degree of poetic spirit and expression distinguishes some passages of this little descriptive work, it is not sufficiently marked by those finer and loftier qualities which are now generally required, to challenge much attention. Without intending to deliver an unfavorable verdict against the poem of 'Clontarf,' we confess that we should desire to perceive in it some more indubitable claims to excellence, before we ventured to encourage its respectable author to persevere in soliciting the favors of the Muse. Yet such lines as the following, in a less brilliant and abundant poetic æra than the present, might well deserve to vindicate for the author a niche in the vast temple of Fame.

> ' Escaped the city din, with joy, Clontarf,
> I hail thee. In thy pure and fragrant breeze
> My soul feels buoyant. The reviving breath
> Of health is round me. As a bird let loose
> From tedious thraldom, I revisit glad
> Thy fields and shores, 'till my emotions burst
> Spontaneous into song.—Thou seem'st from far,
> A wood-crowned island, floating on the waves:
> Such as, of old, might bards have deemed th' abode
> Of some bright goddess, offspring of the sun
> Or sea-born Tethys, anxious to detain
> Her wandering hero, by sweet spells of love.
> Fair are thy daughters:—strong in heart and hand
> Thy sons, true race of ocean, skilled to war
> With all his tempests. Ever to their toils
> Be heaven benignant. May thy waters flow
> Clear and salubrious, furrowed by the keel
> Of many a bark with pleasure's streamers gay!
> Here, never more may pirate Dane unfurl
> His raven ensign:—nor a ruthless Coote
> Kindle the torch of ruin. But may peace
> With downy wing brood o'er thee; spring adorn
> With all her blooms, and ever round thy bowers
> May sweetest visions float of love and joy!'

Dr. Drummond has been favorably introduced to our readers on former occasions.

Art. 11. *The Voice of the Vaudois*; or, the Maniac of the Vallies. A Poem. 8vo. pp. 43. Seeley and Son. 1823.

It is stated that 'any profit, which may arise from the publication of this poem, will be added to the fund for the relief of the distressed Vaudois.' Whatever, then, might be the merits of the composition, the object would be intitled to approbation and encouragement: but our feelings and our duty will not be found to clash on this occasion, and the poem may safely rely on its own inherent merits for a kind reception. Indeed, more than a common degree of poetic power is exhibited throughout this touching and melancholy tale, which will appear from the short specimen that we shall give: but it will first be right to afford our readers some idea of the misfortunes of the brave people to whom it relates, in the author's own words.

' The Vaudois still inhabit three beautiful vallies in Piedmont, where, under oppression the most cruel, and unceasing persecutions, they still exemplify the power of religion, in being faithful even unto death.

' For an account of some few of their dreadful sufferings, the reader may be referred to the last chapters of the third volume of Milner's Church History. The following poem is founded on the *retreat of the Vaudois* from their enemies, which happened at the end of the seventeenth century, after the revocation of the edict of Nantes. In this disastrous flight from their homes and property, no less than one thousand five hundred men, women, and children, miserably perished, from exposure or famine. One of their pastors, named Henry Arnauld, at the head of six hundred followers, returned four years afterwards, defeated their invaders, and retook the vallies, where ever since, under the providence of God, they have remained, as a striking monument of the fulfilment of that promise bequeathed to his church, "Lo! I am with you always, even unto the end of the world." '

We shall quote a stanza from the second canto, which will be a fair sample of the rest.

> ' Hark! the loud trampling as of warriors' feet
> Floats on the gale, and morning's ruddy beams
> Kindle yon line of spears, which bristling meet
> Their brightness, flashing in refulgent gleams,
> So that the wooded glade all fiery seems,
> As on they pour tumultuous; firm no more,
> Like men in phalanx, when the banner streams
> O'er head in battle, such as erst of yore
> Themselves had been, and ev'n but few short hours before.'

We may be allowed, however, to add the closing lines of the poem, describing the funeral rites over the pastor Arnauld's daughter.

> The sun retir'd behind the Alps serene,
> And o'er their vales the lengthening shadows fell,
> When, far below, a silent throng was seen
> Winding in sad procession thro' the dell —
> They reach'd her infant's grave, while her slow knell
> Peal'd thro' the darkening glens the glades among:
> Then in the gale came on with heavier swell,
> While weeping mourners round the coffin hung,
> As low it sunk in earth, and the last hymn was sung.
>
> ' Oft have I sate within a neighbouring cave,
> When western skies have worn their crimsom glow,
> And look'd, with thoughts of heav'n, upon her grave
> Where now the grass waves o'er it to and fro:
> There the thorn blooms, and lilies ever grow,
> Blending their blossoms o'er her lifeless breast;
> Emblems of peace, which such as she shall know,
> When, in the glorious mansions of the blest,
> They too at last arrive and enter into rest.
>
> ' Oft have I mark'd the hunter leave his road,
> The chase when o'er, to spend a moment there:
> And heard the bee, full with her honey'd load,
> Hum droning homewards, thro' the fragrant air.
> Sleep on, sweet slumberer! free from toil and care,
> And when Heav'n wills that my last hour shall come,
> Oh may I something of thy comfort share,
> *And lay me* down as tranquil in the tomb,
> *With the same* hope to rise, to an eternal home!'

t.

Art. 12. *The Nursery-Guide;* or, "Remarks on the Conduct of a Nursery:" containing Information likely to be useful to those who may shortly take upon themselves the Duties of a Mother; and particularly offered to the Notice of Females in general. By Henry Thompson, Surgeon, Enfield, Middlesex. 8vo. pp. 56. 4*s*. Boards. Underwood. 1822.

The object of the author of this didactic poem is to inculcate, in verse, the most approved precepts for the management of infants. The text, however, is accompanied and explained by numerous prose notes; which, although occasionally marked by a displeasing expression, are the most valuable parts of the work: for the difficulties with which the author has vainly contended, in endeavoring to clothe his ideas in the language of blank verse, have rendered his lessons vague, imperfect, and sometimes obscure. We are decidedly of opinion that a plain practical treatise, in humble prose, on the duties of a mother, would have enabled him to exhibit in a much more favorable manner his good sense and professional information.

In the opening of the poem, although containing some defective lines, we have perhaps the least faulty specimen which we can lay before our readers.

'*The Offering.*

'First stage of Life! existence first proclaim'd;
Nucleus, on which the future man depends!
From which or good or ill must emanate!
Bud of Futurity! the op'ning bloom
Whence, as it ripens, blasts or brings us joy!
Solace of Care, though yet of care begetting!
Source whence maternal tenderness deriv'd
That gives to female virtue half its rays!
But, chief of all, Fountain of Instinct pure,
Whence the thought matur'd bursts into reason!
To thee, O Infancy! and to thy cause,
Neglected long, the lyre be now attun'd.
Deign t' accept the proffer'd aid of one
Conscious of feeble powers, though nought loath
To raise his willing voice in thy defence.'

The still nearer approach of some passages of this production to bad prose may be inferred from the following *remarks on Worms:*

'Another fevering form of ill exists,
Exciting symptoms similar to those
Just mentioned: Worms, infesting the canal
Intestinal; these oftentimes produce,
Though from a diff'rent cause, the same effects,
(As far as *cursory observation* shows,)
Yet are they vastly diff'ring, whilst no change
Is seen in some, so do they vary oft.
The symptoms which proclaim their sick'ning pow'r,
Are parching fever, itching of the nose,
The swollen belly, 'yond th' accustom'd size

'Of health's establishment, with peevishness,
And sleepless weariness, and appetite
Of most vorac'ous insatiety.'

BOTANY.

Art. 13. *An Appendix to the Midland Flora;* comprising also Corrections and Additions referring to the two former Volumes; and occasional Observations tending to elucidate the Study of the British Fungi. Concluding with a Generic and Specific Index to the whole Work, and a General Index of Synonyms. In Two Parts. By Thomas Purton, F.L.S. Memb. R.C. Surgeons. Embellished with Thirty coloured Engravings. 12mo. 1*l.* 10*s.* Boards. Longman and Co.

The botanical labors of Mr. Purton, of which we expressed ourselves in terms of merited praise in our Number for June, 1818, have been continued with persevering industry, and the result has been the addition of a third volume to his *Midland Flora:* which, we are happy to say, possesses greater originality of research and claims a higher interest than his former publication. A considerable number of phænogamous plants have been added by him to the list already given of those that are found in the midland counties: but the present volume is chiefly valuable for the correct descriptions which it contains of a vast number of the cryptogamous species; many of the rarer of which are admirably illustrated by colored engravings, of great accuracy and beauty. Mr. Purton has judiciously adopted the arrangement of Acharius, in his enumeration and description of the lichen family.

We cannot indulge in a minutely critical survey of this work: but we must be allowed to say that, had circumstances permitted, the object of the author would have been more successfully accomplished by entirely new casting his former volumes, and by the introduction of the matter of that which is before us, in its due place and order. Indeed, it is to be regretted that Mr. Purton had not at first more fully digested his materials, before he sent his papers to the press; since a longer delay might have enabled him to supply the public with a less bulky and expensive work. Even this third volume contains, at the close of its second part, corrections and augmentations to itself. The utility of the work, however, is considerably increased by the addition of indices of generá and species, and of synonyms. We congratulate the author on the pleasing relaxation from professional labors which his botanical studies must have afforded him. The sentiments contained in the following passage of his advertisement are honorable to his feelings, and command our warmest sympathy:

'In choosing the study of botany as a relaxation from the duties of a laborious profession, the author has not altogether quitted the line of that profession; so closely are medicine and botany connected. It might be calling upon others to enter too much into his own feelings, were he to state how often he has found the weariness of a professional journey relieved by botanical researches. Every man in the author's situation must sympathize in those pains and sorrows of which he is the daily spectator: in these cases, botany has frequently lent a soothing aid; it has often diverted from a painful train of thought a mind, which, if it had been less alive to these feelings of anxiety, might perhaps have been better adapted to his profession.'

MEDICINE.

Art. 14. *A practical Treatise on Nervous, Bilious, and Inflammatory Affections*, with a new Method of curing Strictures without the Use of Bougie or Caustic: with an Appendix on the Diseases of Women and Children. By J. Lynch. 8vo. pp. 84. Printed for the Author. 1822.

This well-printed pamphlet is nothing more than an advertisement of certain remedies, *an aperient, a botanical decoction, a botanical oil*, and a *diuretic decoction;* the superior efficacy of which, we have no doubt, wholly depends on the concealment of their component ingredients. Rich as the harvest is, which the credulity of the afflicted in body presents to the designing in mind, the number of reapers is more than amply sufficient for the work. Some, therefore, who have endeavoured thus to raise themselves to wealth, are constrained to fall behind as gleaners, and to gather what has dropped from the eager hands of more successful labourers. Mr. Lynch, who has not ventured to claim the title of Physician, Surgeon, or Accoucheur, has nevertheless invaded the province of each, and, we presume, endeavours to pick his livelihood from the general field of the healing art.

EDUCATION.

Art. 15. *A Mother's Portrait:* sketched soon after her Decease, for the Study of her Children. By their surviving Parent. 12mo. 4*s*. 6*d*. Boards. Knight and Lacy. 1823.

We cannot agree with this writer when he says, page 3., that 'innumerable public examples, good, indifferent, and bad, are pourtrayed in print, to warn the unruly and edify the thoughtful and serious reader, while very few genuine and engaging pictures are drawn from private and domestic life.' On the contrary, we have sometimes questioned the expediency of such frequent publications as we now receive, of the Christian lives, trials, and temptations of obscure though pious persons. Among such narratives, however, we would give an honorable place to the present work; not only for the unaffected and pleasing style, but for the candid and Christian spirit, in which it is written. The reflections suggested to the subject of the memoir, by the loss of health, deserve to be given in her own words, and may serve as specimens of the instruction and example afforded in the work. At p. 100. she thus speaks in a letter to a friend:

'I begin to be too weak to prepare a meal for myself or to make the least effort for my own support. I am likely soon to become altogether dependent on the care and attention of others for my daily nourishment. But what shall I render to the Lord for all his benefits toward me! I am not likely to want any one

comfor

comfort which my afflicted state can require, to alleviate it as much as it can be alleviated in this world. I shall go down to the grave receiving all the attention that the kindest relatives and friends can give. I have been reading an author who speaks of our passage to the tomb being *sloped*, and I know by experience the truth of his remark. When I reflect upon having such earthly comforts in addition to my " good hope" of heaven, and think also of my entire deliverance from the fear of death, and even the fear of dying, I scarcely know how to express my feelings. For many, many reasons I could wish to recover, and I am told that it is still possible I may be restored; but if it is the will of God that this affliction should be unto death, *that* is a reason sufficient to weigh down all that I can balance against it: and this disposition to resign myself entirely to his pleasure I reckon among my greatest present benefits.'

Art. 16. *Letters from a Lady to her Niece;* containing Practical Hints, intended to direct the Female Mind in the Pursuit of Attainments conducive to Virtue and Happiness. 12mo. 2*s.* Boards. Printed at Edinburgh for Oliver and Boyd; and sold in London by Whittakers. 1822.

On the principle that a new book will be read when an old one is neglected, we may recommend this little volume as containing the same good advice which has already been penned for young females by Dr. Fordyce, Mrs. Chapone, and many of their imitators. The present writer, however, is particularly vague in her counsel for a course of reading; since in page 35. she says, 'I have no objection that *novels* should be included among the books which you read in the course of your *studies.*' Would not the *study* of novels, at an early age, disincline her pupil towards 'Mr. Delvile's' catalogue of 'proper books,' viz. " the Rambler, Spectator, and Guardian," which she recommends in page 37.?

Art. 17. *Grammaire Italienne,* &c.; *i.e.* An Italian Grammar, composed according to the best Authorities, and comprizing all the special Instruction which results from long Experience in teaching; to which are subjoined a Collection of Idioms, and a Treatise on Versification. By G. Guazzaroni. The Second Edition, revised, corrected, and considerably enlarged by the Author; translated into French, by C. J. Dupont, Professor of that Language. 12mo. pp. 412. 8*s.* Boards. Gardiner and Son. 1822.

As this unpretending volume may be said to be the conjoint production of two individuals, each of whom may be presumed to be conversant in the phraseology of his native tongue, the Italian and French portions of the composition assume an air of consistency and correctness, which is not always observable in similar performances. This, however, is not its only claim on our favorable notice; for it unfolds, in a very clear and intelligible manner, all the essential and most of the delicate particulars of the structure of the language which it professes to analyze. Under the influence of more metaphysical views, indeed, the same amount of information might have been imparted in a more simplified and generalized form: but the mode of proceeding by practical statements, which seems to have been preferably adopted, is perhaps better suited to the purpose of *drilling*. After all, we demur to the propriety of putting more than a mere outline of any grammar into the hands of beginners.

The compendious sketch of Italian versification may suffice to explain its mechanism and peculiarities: but many of the reputed *idioms* are resolvable into analogous modes of expression in other languages. On the whole, however, Mr. Guazzaroni's efforts are intitled to commendation.

Art. 18. *Eight familiar Lectures on Astronomy;* intended as an Introduction to the Science, for the Use of young Persons and others not conversant with the Mathematics: accompanied with Plates, numerous Diagrams, and a copious Index. By William Phillips, F.L.S., Author of Outlines of Mineralogy and Geology, &c. New Edition, corrected. 12mo. pp. 300. W. Phillips.

A popular illustration of the solar system, its laws and dependencies, and the reciprocal relations which prevail between the several bodies of which it is composed, are subjects admitting of such clear and distinct description, and may be rendered so interesting to youth of inquiring minds, that we are not surprized at the numerous attempts which are made to render the subject familiar to the rising generation; and we are generally disposed to view with a favorable regard every effort of this kind, that has due claims to accuracy and utility.

The present little volume, although it contains some serious errors, is in many respects a pleasing performance, and places the several subjects on which it treats in a very distinct point of view, so as to render the deductions drawn from theory and observation familiar to the mind of the student; and the plate exhibiting the solar system is in particular deserving of notice, as it is the only attempt that we have seen to exhibit to the eye the inclination of the planetary orbits. We are convinced that this plate will better illustrate this part of the system, than ten pages of written explanation.

The subjects treated in the several lectures are, 1. An Introduction, Sketch of the History of Astronomy, different Theories, Discoveries of Kepler and Newton, and a general View of the Solar System: — 2. Of Gravity, and the Laws of the Planetary Motions: — 3. On the Sun, Planets, and Comets: — 4. On the Astronomy of the Earth, as the apparent Centre of the Starry Sphere: — 5. Of the Moon: — 6. Of the Eclipses of the Sun and Moon, and on the Tides: — 7. Of the Harvest-moon, Equation of Time, &c.; — and, lastly, of the Fixed Stars.

These several subjects, as we have already stated, are in general discussed in a pleasing and perspicuous manner, which makes us the more regret the errors that have been admitted in various places. We shall mention a few instances. In page 22. the mean distance of a planet from the sun is erroneously defined.—P. 35. the Scheballien experiment is said to have followed that of Cavendish; whereas it was in fact made several years before the latter.—P. 36. gravity is improperly mentioned as a resisting force to the motion of bodies.—P. 38. the motion of Jupiter's satellites is supposed to be dependent on their masses, which is not the case; the time of rotation of a revolving body being dependent on the attraction of the central body only.—In pages 41. and 42. it is said,

'This rule has been found to hold in all cases, namely, *the spaces passed through by bodies falling from a state of rest increase, as the squares of the times they are falling increase.*

'Now, Newton has shewn that this very law is competent to the explanation of *that* by which the moon moves with the earth in her orbit round the sun; and it is a striking proof of the simplicity of the laws of motion, that *one and the same principle governs the falling of a stone and the revolution of a planet.*'

The fact here is that the spaces, being directly as the square of the time, have no reference to Newton's law: for this would be the case if gravity did not diminish by distance, whereas the particular inference with regard to the moon depends on the force decreasing inversely as the square of the distance.

At page 48. the earth is said to complete its revolution on its axis in twenty-four hours: but the statement should have been qualified by explaining to the student that this is only apparent, and that the actual time of one rotation is but 23h. 56m.

We might point out various other trifling errors of this kind, which ought to be corrected if the work should be re-printed; and this, we think, is by no means improbable, on account of the generally pleasing manner in which the subject is illustrated.

Art. 19. *A Concise System of Mensuration,* adapted to the Use of Schools. Containing Algebra with Fluxions, Practical Geometry, Trigonometry; Mensuration of Superficies and Solids, Land Surveying, Gauging, &c. Together with a large Appendix, containing the Demonstrations of the Rules in the Work. By Alexander Ingram, Mathematician, Leith. 12mo. 4*s.* 6*d.* bound. Whittakers.

Our readers, perhaps, will be at a loss, when they have perused the above title, to conjecture why the author has chosen to call his work 'A Concise System of Mensuration;' since it would have been more appropriately denominated *A Concise Course of Practical Mathematics,* which its contents would very well have borne out. We have formerly had occasion to notice Mr. Ingram's Elements of Euclid, which we have always considered as one of the best of our English translations of that work; and we are glad to be able to say, in the present instance, that the author has by no means given us reason to think more lightly of his talents for concise and accurate illustrations. As the work is limited in its extent, it cannot be expected to treat largely on the several subjects which it embraces: but, by a judicious selection, the author has found the means of comprizing in a small compass much that is useful and valuable to the practical mathematician. We would advise him, however, in case of another edition, to leave out the little that he has said on the doctrine of fluxions: for it is obvious that a few pages are not sufficient for entering on that subject, in such a way as to render it intelligible to an uninformed student; and to give the mere definitions, in a single page, is inconsistent with the judgment displayed in the other parts of this little volume.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 20. *Rational Amusement for Winter-Evenings;* or, a Collection of above Two Hundred curious and interesting Puzzles and Paradoxes relating to Arithmetic, Geometry, Geography, &c. with their Solutions, and Four Plates. Designed chiefly for Young Persons. By John Jackson, Private Teacher of Mathematics. 12mo. 4*s*. 6*d*. Boards. Longman and Co.

The title of this little work sufficiently indicates the nature of it, which is not such as to require any particular comment from us. It will be sufficient to say that the questions appear to be well selected, and that they are such as to justify the author in adopting the title of 'Rational Amusement.'

Art. 21. *Narrative of a Journey to Brussels and Coblentz,* 1791. By his most Christian Majesty Louis XVIII. King of France and Navarre. 8vo. 6*s*. Boards. Colburn. 1823.

In the editor's preface to this publication, which is a translation from the French, he properly introduces the consideration of its authenticity, and fairly acknowleges that he cannot produce the 'unquestionable and convincing proofs' of autograph writing or legal certificate to establish its claims: — 'but,' he adds, 'if the reader will consider that the work is openly published at Paris, under the government of the royal author, with the names of a very respectable printer and bookseller; and that it has consequently been subjected, previously to publication, to all the requisite formalities, we have no doubt that he will readily dispense with any other proof. Besides, if he will appeal to the testimony of his own judgment, he will easily recognize, in this little work, intrinsic proofs of authenticity, as well in the turn of thought as in the style.'

Here, then, admitting this conclusion, we have a fresh accession to the list of *Royal Authors;* though neither the subject nor the mode of treating it is likely to place the new member in the highest class of this high society. A prince, flying from the throne which he should defend if he would retain or inherit it, is not a very heroic though he may be a pitied object; and the mind of *Monsieur,* as he then was called, seems to be principally occupied with the security of his personal safety and comfort. Its 'turn of thought,' as the editor remarks, may be recognized as bespeaking the mind of his present 'most Christian Majesty:' but, as for its 'style,' we do not undertake to form an opinion; though we may state, and do cheerfully add, that it manifests at least one sentiment which is honorable to the royal narrator, viz. that of unbounded gratitude and kindness towards M. d'Avaray, who planned and conducted his retreat.

The editor also observes that 'the historical interest' of this detail lies chiefly 'in the explanation it affords of certain facts which have hitherto remained unknown, or doubtful; and which it is unnecessary to point out to the reader's sagacity.' To the French reader, these facts may be more familiar and evident than they are to the generality of Englishmen; and we confess that, at this distance of time, and having been able only to peruse the volume in haste, we have not distinguished these historical elucidations. We learn, however, that the publication has a very extensive sale in France; and, on the supposition of its authenticity, we may recommend it to the perusal of our countrymen, as possessing some interest of rather a singular kind, and as no doubt likely to aid the annalist in his researches and deductions.

We transcribe the account of the departure from Paris. *Monsieur* had retired quietly to bed, as if nothing was in contemplation:

'Before I proceed further, it is necessary to observe, that my first valet-de-chambre always slept in my room, which seemed to be an impediment to my departure, unless I were to admit him to my confidence. But I had satisfied myself, by an experiment made two days before, that I had much more than sufficient time to rise, light a taper, and pass into my closet, before he could undress and return into my chamber.

'Scarce had he left the room, when I got up, closed the curtains of my bed again, and having taken the few articles which I wished to carry with me, entered my closet, the door of which I shut behind me; and thenceforth, whether by a presentiment, or through a just confidence in D'Avaray, I considered myself out of the kingdom. I put in the pockets of my robe-de-chambre three hundred louis, which I intended to take, and entered the little apartment where D'Avaray was waiting for me, after having been greatly alarmed, for as he came in the key had refused to turn in the lock. A thousand ideas, each worse than the preceding, had passed through his mind. At length he tried to turn the key inwards, which was precisely the way of the lock. When dressed, by his assistance, I recollected that I had left my cane, and a second snuff-box, which I also wished to carry with me. I was for returning to fetch them. "No rashness!" said he. I persisted no longer. The dress fitted me very well, but the wig was a little too tight. However, as it would go on, and as I had determined, upon every occasion of consequence, to keep a great round hat, decorated with a broad tri-coloured cockade, on my head, this inconvenience did not give us much concern. As we crossed the little apartment, D'Avaray said that there was a glass-coach, similar to ours, in the court of the great Luxembourg, which caused him some anxiety. I tranquillized him, by telling him it was for Madame. When we were on the stair-case, he desired me to wait while he went to see whether it was still there. Finding it was gone, he returned to me, saying in English, "*Come along with me.*"—"*I am ready,*" I answered, in the same language, and we got into the coach, which was a *vis-a-vis.* In getting in, I chanced to seat myself in front. "What!" said he, "compliments?"—"Faith," replied I, "here I am." He did not urge the matter; and having ordered the coachman to drive to the Pont-Neuf, we thus left the Luxembourg. My joy at finding I had escaped from my gaolers, which D'Avaray most sincerely shared, made us extremely cheerful. Accordingly our first impulse, after passing the gate, was to sing a couplet of the parody on Penelope:

'"Ça va bien,
Ça prend bien;
Ils ne se doutent de rien."'*

The narrative thus feelingly closes:

'I know not what may be the destiny of my country or my own. But, whatever may be the dispensation of Providence respecting myself, it can never take from me as much as it has given me, in the possession of such a friend as my dear D'Avaray.'

Art. 22. *Sequel to an unfinished Manuscript of Henry Kirke White:* designed to illustrate the Contrast afforded by Christians and Infidels, at the Close of Life. By the Author of "The Wonders of the Vegetable Kingdom displayed," &c. 12mo. 4*s*. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

If the regretted Kirke White had completed his MS. in the same manner as the compiler of the present Sequel has accomplished it for him, it would have occasioned him very little trouble; since it is really nothing more than a collection of death-bed scenes, extracted from various works, or perhaps from the columns of the Evangelical Magazine. We must remark, also, that the sins of some of the offenders are not of the very deepest dye, or calculated to occasion that extremity of agony which they are represented to have produced. Thus Mr. ——, a medical gentleman of considerable eminence who was 'devoted to the gaieties of life, and passionately fond of cards,' 'breathed his last with a dismal groan.'—The following passage gives a tolerably good idea of the style of this little volume. 'A high sense of honour, as it is termed, was, however, always retained by the subject of this memoir, and he was strictly careful to avoid every thing that the world esteems discreditable. His habits of life thus concurring with the natural corruption of the human heart, and estranging him more and more from God, he soon became confirmed in his leaning to the wretched doctrine of materialism.'

Art. 23. *A Lecture on the History and Utility of Literary Institutions.* Delivered at the Surrey Institution, London, November 1., and again at the Russell Institution, December 20.

'* This does well, this takes; they suspect nothing.'

1822. By James Jennings. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

An acceptable service, we think, has been rendered to the cause of literature by the publication of this Lecture, which contains much information not elsewhere to be found in a collected form. A detailed account is given of the various literary institutions of the metropolis, and a sketch of such as exist or are about to be established in the great provincial towns. Liverpool is stated to possess two considerable public libraries, with an institution to which schools are attached, and where lectures are delivered. A philosophical and literary society has also been lately established at Leeds; and institutions having similar objects in view are organizing at Bristol and at Norwich. We could have wished that Mr. Jennings had dedicated a little more space to the account of the American literary institutions, which are very numerous, and of which but little is known in this country. Perhaps it would have been better, also, if the first section of the Lecture, 'On the History of Literary Institutions,' had occupied some of the pages of the second section, which are devoted by Mr. J. to his strictures on their utility.

If style were very material in a work like the present, we should remark that the discourse of Mr. Jennings is rather a "*sermo pedestris.*"

CORRESPONDENCE.

Anti-polemos has our entire concurrence, generally, and we shall attend to his hints on the particular occasion of his letter.

Z. A. Y. will find the article in our last Appendix, about which he is solicitous.

Amicus alter will accept our thanks, and our assurances that we shall not be unmindful of his representations and his arguments.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. C. of the Monthly Review was published with the last Number, on the 1st of June.

☞ We again recommend to the notice of our readers the lately published GENERAL INDEX to the whole of the *New Series* of the Monthly Review, in two large vols. 8vo.; as not only a most convenient but a necessary guide to that (now) extensive portion of our work, and to the *History of Literature* for the period which it includes.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1823.

Art. I. *Transactions of the Geological Society*, established November 13. 1807. Second Series. Volume I. Part the First. 4to. pp. 192. 1*l.* 5*s.* sewed. Sold at the Society's House.

The Council of the Geological Society, having taken on themselves the publication and management of their Transactions, with a view to afford them at a reduced price and thus to increase the circulation of their contents, have adopted a fuller page than that of the preceding volumes, and mean to be contented with lithographic instead of copper plates, when the substitution of the former can be effected without detriment to the illustration of the subjects represented. Hence this New Series, the commencement of which we have now to report, and which opens with

An Outline of the Geology of Russia. By the Hon. William T. H. F. Strangways. — Such a title is somewhat appalling, and conjures up to our fancy the ghosts of various quartos, with a suitable allowance of charts and sections: but Mr. Strangways at once relieves us from our apprehensions, by acquainting us that he limits his survey to the great outlines of some of the principal formations, in the order of their respective distribution. His views, though thus circumscribed, and treated in a very concise and summary manner, bespeak a well informed mind, and acuteness of observation; and his divisions are rather geological than geographical, or civil. Thus, under Finland, he comprehends the whole country of Old and New Finland, and Carelia; — an evident prolongation of the primitive regions of Sweden, and possibly of those of Norway, Lapland, &c. The northern parts are reported to consist chiefly of trap-rocks; the central, of gneiss, and other schistose rocks; and the southern border entirely of granite. The parish of Pargas, which comprizes several considerable islands in the Gulf of Bothnia, presents the same general features as the main land; viz. long steep ridges of gneiss, crowned with fir-trees and birch. On one of the principal islands is found *Pargasite*, in one or more large veins of white primitive lime-stone; and in different portions of this lime-stone have also been observed augite and hornblend-rock, purple spots, supposed to be fluor, moroxite, scapolite, coccolite, Romanzovite, and chondrolite. The latter occurs likewise in other parts of Finland, but always in primitive lime-stone. — The neighbourhood of Tavastchus abounds in granitic slates, which are frequently waved in the most singular and irregular manner. — Near Helsingfors is a copper mine, in which is found the blue quartz called *Steinhilite*, as also garnets and primitive lime-stone.—At Nyslot, rose-quartz occurs.

The granite which stretches from Fredericshamn to the south of Wyborg, like most of the large-grained varieties, is very liable to decomposition: ‘ instances of which may be seen frequently in Finland: where a great tor or boulder has often a hole cut in it large enough to admit a cart and horse; and the stone, though at a small distance it seems calculated to last for ages, is cut down and shaped away with the same ease and much in the same manner as a hay-rick.’ The author likewise informs us that ‘ this granite is subject also to a different kind of decay, where large masses are separated by the winter-frosts, in directions regulated by their prevailing fissures. These fissures are usually perpendicular, with horizontal ones crossing them at right angles, and at considerable distances, producing a sort of columnar arrangement on a large scale: not irregular, though ill defined. This structure may be traced every where on the surface of the rock, and affords bold and picturesque façades wherever the hill rises to a considerable elevation.’

Lake Onega is bounded on the north-western shore by a green jasper breccia, and on the north by a veined marble, abounding in tremolite. Some general remarks apply to this lake, that of Ladoga, and the Gulf of Finland; the northern shores of all being formed of the older rocks, much broken and indented, and skirted with islands: while sand or sandstone composes the eastern and western sides, and the southern boundary is boggy soil, quickly succeeded by a chain of secondary hills.

Having treated of the sand, shale, and lime-stone-strata of the Pleta district in a former memoir, Mr. S. forbears now to enlarge on them: but he observes, in a note, that the organic remains which they contain are analogous to those of the Shropshire lime-stone. — The Northern Salt District exhibits the usual formations of red marl, rock-salt, sand, and gypsum. The last-mentioned substance is quarried in different spots; and, when of a dark-brown colour, and mixed with *white, it* takes a fine polish, and resembles oriental alabaster.

That of Livonia is exported in large quantities from Riga to St. Petersburgh. Salt springs occur in many places on the west side of Lake Ilmen. — The Valday Hills, which bound the valley of Novgorod on the south, though possibly not exceeding eight or nine hundred feet of elevation, form the partition of the waters which flow into the great northern and southern basins. The largest escarpment of these hills is towards the north. In their structure we meet with horizontal strata of sand, including thick and regular layers of argillaceous iron-stone. The next beds are blue lime-stone, containing, among various other organic remains, a sort of Briarean pentacrinite, panicled like millet.

The extensive tract of territory called the *Central Salt District* is composed of a reddish and very loose sand, devoid of native herbage, but producing rye, wheat, and flax in abundance. Salt springs exist in the governments of Yaroslaf, Kostroma, &c. The remarkable chasms on the Oca shew nothing but horizontal strata of red and white marl. The rocks and cavern of Barnoucova are thus described:

> ' A round hill, covered with a wood of oaks to the very summit, is at this place hollowed on one side into a natural amphitheatre, accessible only by a rugged path, which follows a small stream issuing from a narrow opening between the hills. On pursuing this stream into the recess from which it flows, some lofty perpendicular rocks appear above the wood on the right hand; and a few steps further, on turning a sudden corner, the dell widens a little, but is suddenly barred across its upper end by a precipitous cliff of considerable height and snowy whiteness. A small lake lies in the hollow, fringed with oaks, and which has an outlet by the stream which accompanies the path. The white cliff rises abruptly from behind the lake, and a woody eminence above terminates the scene. But the beauty and repose, which characterize this sequestered spot, are not the only features which distinguish it. On arriving at the foot of the cliff, it is discovered to be of the purest alabaster; and on passing the tangled brushwood which conceals it, is seen the mouth of a cavern formed in a rock, of which it is no exaggeration to say that it resembles the driven snow; for to no other object in nature does it bear any resemblance. On descending towards the mouth of this cave, although yet at a distance of several feet from it, a sudden and remarkable sensation of chill is strongly experienced: it seems at the moment as if the rock, which has all the appearance of snow, had also its coldness; and in ascending the rocks on either side, the return to perfect warmth is felt instantly on rising above the level of the cave. The interior soon contracts *, and is, as might

---

' * Pallas visited Barnoucova in 1768. For a minute description of the cavern, which makes it needless for me to say more upon this subject, see his Travels, vol. i.'

be supposed, intensely cold; a quality remarkable even during the hottest weather. On the right hand, the tops of many of the flatter or larger masses which rise above the trees not only glitter in the sun like drifts of snow, but the purity of their colour, their powdery texture, and even their furrowed surfaces, which are channelled and waved as if by the action of the wind, contribute to deceive the observer, and produce the most perfect resemblance. The rock is indistinctly stratified in large beds, and contains starry crystallizations of selenite.'

About eleven versts higher up the Piana, is the village of Tzaitska, near which has been found a substance that passed for rock-leather, (a modification of asbestos,) but has been ascertained to be a coriaceous form of fibrous gypsum. To this marl-formation seems also to belong the lime-stone of Cazan; which is oolitic, but hard and compact, and includes terebratulites and long organic stalks, without any apparently regular termination. The whiter lime-stone of Mourzikha, on the Soura, displays large multilocular shells, intermediate between the ammonite and nautilite; and of which the interior is usually found in a state of delicate preservation.

Although the *Central Mining District*, which includes parts of the governments of Nishney Novgorod, Vladimir, Rezan, Toula, &c. is generally a poor sandy region, it contains some extensive iron-works; the metal being, for the most part, manufactured where the ore is raised. In the ample forest of Mourom, and about sixty feet below the surface, are beds of iron-stone of various qualities: but, in consequence of a wasteful mode of working them, the soil is perforated with an infinite number of pits.

The *Central Lime-stone District*, so designated from a tract of very pure white lime-stone, which traverses the middle of Russia, is crowded with broken encrinites, large terebratulites, caryophyllites, and the debris of other marine animals. To the same formation belong two kinds of marble, viz. the yellow, which is quarried at Serponkhof and Colomna, containing fragments of encrini, and a very large species of terebratulite, with a spiral hinge; and the other near Aleskina, of a dull reddish brown, and containing large specimens of the *Anomites productus*. The hill called Tzaref Kourgan is composed of strata of grey lime-stone, with minute madrepores, resembling grains of wheat in shape and size.

The *Oural Mountains* comprize a rich and extensive tract of red marl, salt, and gypsum, with occasional springs of naphtha, some coal, and a productive argillaceous iron-stone. On both sides of the salt-country is an immense tract of copper-sand, containing fossil-wood impregnated with copper, and supposed casts of *cacti*. The Oural chain itself consists of various primitive rocks: but the marble quarries are now little worked. The southern and eastern parts are celebrated for the beauty of their ornamental jaspers, which occur in large rock-masses.

With regard to the *Steppes*, they are characterized as primitive, calcareous, or saline. The prevailing rock in the first is a coarse-grained granite, containing garnets, but sometimes passing into trap or syenite. Among the lime-stone rocks in the second are various oolites and shelly strata, and a bituminous formation in a ridge of shale. The third is marked by its depressed situation, its want of fresh water, the saltness of its pools and lakes, the saline nature of its scanty vegetation, and the strata of hard clay under the sand.

We have thus merely glanced at some of the more prominent geological facts stated by the author of a paper which treats of a subject that has been hitherto much neglected: but we must not omit to mention that his map and former reports should be taken in connection with his present essay; and that some of his collateral observations on the navigation of the Msta, the alleged change of level in the waters of the Black Sea, &c. agreeably relieve the otherwise strictly didactic complexion of his notices.

Remarks on the Geology of the South Coast of England, from Bridport Harbour, Dorset, to Babbacombe Bay, Devon. By H. B. De la Beche, Esq. — The scope of these remarks is to note the boundaries and bearings of the chalk, green sand, and lias strata, as also the formation of red marl, sand-stone, and conglomerate, within the limited portions of coast assigned in the title; and to indicate the fossil-remains which they respectively exhibit. It is well known that the chalk, which is the uppermost of the beds, abounds in flints, contains many fossils, rests on green-sand, and is almost always covered with a deposit of unrolled chalk-flints. The green sand is incumbent sometimes on the oolitic formation, or blue lias, sometimes on red marl, &c. and contains beds of chert, either unbroken or shattered. Among the numerous fossil-remains which it includes near Lyme, are singular vestiges of crustacea, an echinite belonging to the genus *Echinonaus* of König, and a non-descript, to which the author has given the name of *Eckinonaus lampas*, from its resemblance in shape to an antique lamp. The blue lias rises from beneath beds of the oolitic formation; and its cliffs near Lyme afford a favorable opportunity of examining its interesting fossils. Among the latter, are vestiges of the *Ichthyosaurus* of König, three species of which are distinguishable. Some of the animals of the genus Ichthyosaurus (says the author) must have been of an enormous size; and I have in my possession a vertebra of one of them, which measures seven inches and three quarters in diameter, with various portions of the paddle, which, when entire, must have measured (including the humerus) at least two feet and a half in length.*' Mr. De la Beche likewise particularizes traces of the Plesiosaurus, and some curious defensive radii of fish, which are figured in the plates. He also makes mention of the *Dapedium politum* of Leach, a fish with rectangular scales; another of a more slender shape, and with rectangular scales only towards the head; pentacrinites; fossil-wood, and ferns, &c. In the same neighbourhood, and in the same geological repository, are found many varieties of *Ammonites*, *Nautilus striatus*, *Gryphæa incurva*, &c.

'It will be seen by reference to the section, that this coast presents two striking examples of the almost sudden termination of strata, close to points where they attain a thickness which is very considerable. At its eastern extremity, the beds of the oolite formation, the thickness of which exceeds three hundred feet, and which at Down Cliff are interposed between the lias and green sand, entirely vanish before they reach the cliff of Golden Cap; and the lias itself, which is from three to four hundred feet thick between Charmouth and Lyme, is, together with the oolite, totally wanting between the green sand and red marl at Axmouth Point.'

On the Bagshot Sand. By Henry Warburton, Esq.— After having defined the boundaries of the Bagshot sand, Mr. Warburton satisfactorily proves that it reposes on the London clay, and forms a regular stratum. In the course of his investigations, he has traced various fossil-shells to the stony concretions in the beds of sand belonging to the plastic clay, which extend through the low country between Windsor and Reading.

Supplementary Remarks on Quartz Rock. By John Macculloch, M. D., &c.—As the purport of these observations is to give extension and corroboration to some of the facts stated in former communications, the series of papers should be perused in connection.—It appears that a farther examination of the west coast of Scotland has afforded more decisive proofs of the gradation of quartz-rock into undoubted gneiss, and of the alternations of these two rocks; while the west coast of Sutherland furnishes various examples of the alternations of quartz-

---

'* Remains of the Ichthyosaurus are found in the lias, at Watchet, Somerset; at Bath; at the Old Passage, Gloucestershire; and at Whitby, in Yorkshire.'

quartz-rock with red sand-stone, occurring both in single beds and in mountain-masses. The localities of these alternations and gradations are specified in the paper. Loch Eribol affords a singular instance of considerable curvatures in the quartz-rock. The latter is less frequently associated with gneiss in the northern parts of Aberdeenshire: but, where it comes in contact with the granite of those regions, the regularity of the stratification is disturbed; and, where the fractures are considerable, the parts are sometimes re-united by more minute fragments, and by crystalline quartz: so that, in many places, the mass forms a peculiar breccia or conglomerate. 'In other cases, cavities remain in the intervals; and their surfaces are then generally covered with minute drusy crystallizations of quartz.' Many of these beds, also, losing the character of quartz, assume the aspect of different coloured cherts, while others resemble jasper, &c. — Dr. Macculloch closes these supplementary notices with a short description of a peculiar series of quartz, micaceous, chloritic, and hornblend schists.

Additional Remarks on Glen Tilt. By the Same. — In this second communication, Dr. M. presents us with several supplementary statements in the form of detached memoranda; and some of them, which refer to different varieties of marble, may prove not unacceptable to the artist. — An example of the uncommon occurrence of hornblend in lime-stone is indicated in the grounds of Lude. 'The rock is of a pale dove-colour, and of a large grain; and is intermixed throughout with very minute particles of black hornblende, not exceeding in size a pin's point.' — Near the Feuder, in a hilly tract south of the Tilt, breccia is found connected with the quartz-rock, and composed of re-united fragments of that rock. — Hyaline quartz may be traced in veins in the micaceous schist of Glen Tilt; and it is remarkable on account of its singularity, the quartz of veins being usually opaque. — Titanite is found in the hills that bound the south side of the Glen.

'It is there crystallized in prismatic forms, and imbedded in nodules of chlorite, which are associated with quartz veins, traversing micaceous schist; a situation exactly resembling that in which it is found at Killin. In many cases the crystals are fractured, or else geniculated; for it is often by no means clear to which of the two causes the deviation in their rectilinear directions is to be attributed. In one instance a specimen occurred in which a crowd of capillary crystals, as fine as the finest hair, traversed a vacant cavity in the quartz; and it is not unusual for the larger prisms to shoot through vacant spaces in the vein. I may add here, that I procured at Killin one specimen of a hollow crystal of this substance, the prism of more than an inch in length, having a perforation in the direction of its axis. This is a circumstance of no very common occurrence in crystallization; and I may, for that reason, remark, that I have also met with it in the tourmalin: the specimen in question being a mere tube, very thin, and with a large vacancy.'

Not fewer than eight modifications of tremolite are defined; and the intimacy between that substance and sahlite is stated to be so great, that a probability arises of their passing into one another. — The existence of chalcedony in micaceous schist is noted as an unusual phænomenon. 'It does not occupy a vein, but occurs in slender rifts, in the stone; covering the surface with flattish botryoidal protuberances.' — For the author's ingenious annotations on the crystals of mica and chlorite, and other interesting passages, we must refer to the paper.

On the Geology of the Coast of France, and of the inland Country adjoining; from Fecamp, Departement de la Seine Inferieure, to St. Vaast, Departement de la Manche. By H. T. De la Beche, Esq. — In this paper, the author first sketches, in a few sentences, the general physical aspect of this range of coast, and then proceeds to trace the outlines of its geology; commencing with the upper rocks; and characterizing the chalk, green and iron sand, blue marl and marl-stone, oolite formation, lias, new red sand-stone, porphyritic conglomerate, coal measures, old red sand-stone, compact lime-stone, with slate, quartz-rock, argillaceous slate, grauwacké, and granite. We have enumerated these titles, because they are placed in the order of their natural position: but we cannot accompany their able expositor in all his details; and, even if we could make room for them, the analogy which obtains between the formations on both sides of the Channel would render a consecutive report of them, in some measure, superfluous. We therefore confine our remarks to a few of the more striking particulars mentioned in the survey; and among these we should not omit the thickness of the flint-gravel which covers the chalky tract of country, for it amounts, in some places, to more than one hundred feet. — At the *Vaches Noires* is found, in green sand-stone, the remarkable fossil which Lamouroux has designated *Hallirhoa costata*, which likewise occurs in the green sand-stone of Warminster, in Wiltshire. — The blue marl-formation, which has been mistaken for lias, contains at Hâvre and near Cap la Hire a bed of oyster-shells. — In the oolite formation, which begins with beds corresponding to those of Portland, and terminates with the inferior oolite, is included a blue clay, or marl, similar to the Oxford clay; about three hundred feet in thickness; and containing, besides septarias, fossil-crocodiles, bones of the Plesiosaurus, a fossil-fish, an encrinite, various ammonites, &c. — The Caen freestone is analogous to that of Bath, but is not oolitic, though friable and soft when quarried. — 'Some of the coal-beds are of tolerable thickness; they vary much in quality, and are not in general very good. They rest upon argillaceous slate.' — The granite has a general resemblance to that of Dartmoor, and like it contains crystals of felspar, which sometimes measure two inches in length. It is traversed by granite veins, remarkable for their flesh-colored felspar. — 'At St. Laurent, on the coast of Calvados, there is a submarine forest upon lias-clay, where the remains of trees are very numerous *; and there are also traces of another on the Vaches Noires clay, between Benerville and Villers sur Mer. In neither of these instances can any subsidence be discovered or surmised.'

On resuming the parallelism of geological formations between the English and the French coasts, the author scouts the once popular notion of the two countries having been separated by some violent disruption.

> 'It is much more reasonable,' he says, 'to suppose that the bed of the English Channel was formed at the same time, and in the same manner, with those differences of level which are observable every where on dry land. The depression that forms the bed of the English Channel is very trifling in proportion to its extent of surface; and is very much exceeded in depth by the large continental lakes. The greatest observed depth of water at the western extremity of the Channel, between the Land's End and Ushant, is only seventy fathoms, the distance between the two places being about thirty leagues †; whereas the Lake of Geneva is nearly double that depth between Lausanne and Evian, the distance between the two latter places being only about three leagues. The greatest depth of water in the narrowest part of the Channel, between Dover and Cap Blanc Nez, is thirty fathoms, the distance six leagues; and between Cap la Hogue and the Isle of Portland, a distance of about sixteen leagues, the depth of water is only forty-five fathoms, or two hundred and seventy feet.'

On a Fresh-water Formation in Hordwell Cliff, Hampshire; and on the subjacent Beds, from Hordwell to Muddiford. By T. Webster, Secretary to the Geological Society. — These few pages are to be regarded as supplementary to a memoir by the same gentleman, inserted in the second volume of the

---

'* Its appearance much resembles that on the north coast of Somersetshire described by Mr. Horner. See Geological Transactions, vol. iii. pp. 380., &c.'

'† Leagues, thirty to a degree.'

first series of these Transactions, (p. 161.) and as corroborative of the identity there suggested between certain beds at Alum Bay in the Isle of Wight, and at Hordwell. Another visit to the districts in question, aided by favorable circumstances, has added to the evidence of this identity, grounded on the analogies of the extraneous fossils, the still more satisfactory testimony of the strata themselves. From the thickness of this fresh-water formation at Hordwell Cliff, there is reason to believe that it extends to a considerable distance in an inland direction.

On the Excavation of Valleys by diluvian Action, as illustrated by a Succession of Valleys which intersect the South Coast of Dorset and Devon. By the Rev. William Buckland, Professor of Geology, &c. at Oxford. — The illustrative portions of this paper will be best understood by a reference to the plates: but we may remark that its general tone is sufficiently temperate, for the learned Professor does not exclude the agency of other catastrophes than that of a comparatively recent deluge. His observations are ingenious and judicious: but his hypothesis would require to be grounded on a wider basis of inductions.

Additional Notices on the Fossil Genera Ichthyosaurus and Plesiosaurus. By the Rev. William D. Conybeare. — In consequence of having examined numerous specimens, and corresponded with scientific friends on the structure of these extraordinary relics, Mr. Conybeare has furnished us with much circumstantial information, chiefly of an anatomical description, in addition to his former more imperfect communication. From the diversities observable in the dentition, four species of Ichthyosaurus have been already instituted; the *communis*, *platyodon*, *tenuirostris*, and *intermedius;* all rather more allied to the crocodile than to the other lacertæ, but presenting various analogies to both. Perfect specimens of the skeleton of Plesiosaurus are still wanting, but such parts as have been discovered are here described and delineated.

On the Valley of the Sutluj River in the Himálaya Mountains. By H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.—The lower valley of the Sutluj is easily accessible; the middle valley, comprizing Khanáwer, was visited by Capt. Hodgson, in 1816; and it was explored by Lieut. A. Gerard and his brother, in the course of a geographical survey performed in 1818. Though not particularly conversant in geological researches, and laboring under many discouragements, these gentlemen collected for Mr. Colebrooke such an assortment of specimens and communicated such remarks as suggested the materials of the present memoir.

> ‘ At the three highest peaks visited by them, 16,921, 18,493, and 19,411 feet above the level of the sea, they picked up a number of different stones: but as the ascent was upwards of 7000 feet in each instance, and extremely fatiguing, not to mention excessive debility and severe head-ache experienced at those great elevations, it is not surprising that the attendants to whom the specimens were handed often threw them away as fast as they were collected; and neither threats nor entreaties could prevail with the people to carry more than a very few.
>
> ‘ The three days employed in visiting those high peaks, as Lieut. Gerard observes in a letter to Dr. Wallich, were truly disastrous. Thermometers, barometers, perambulators, and theodolites were broken in pieces. The temperature was 22° below the freezing point of Fahrenheit at half-past four P. M., and they had near 8000 feet to descend, over the most frightful road, to reach their camp. The people threw away every specimen collected: the surveyors were themselves burdened with their instruments and journal, which they would not trust in other hands. Night overtook them, and they lost their road. Most of their servants passed the night at a great elevation without fire; and next day few of them could move, owing to soreness of their feet. These circumstances, he goes on to say, will account for the few varieties of rock and the smallness of the pieces collected at different places.’

Notwithstanding the loss and confusion of many specimens, enough had been preserved and labelled to convey some notion of the outlines of the formations observed in the track. Hence it appears that the banks of the river, in the lower valley, are composed of a lime-stone which has the characters of primitive; and gold-dust is found, in small quantities, in the sands of the river. At an elevation of 15,000 feet above the sea, and the summit of the pass into the middle valley, the rocks are composed of mica-slate, gneiss, and granite, some of them containing garnets, and others tourmalin. A whitish granite prevails between Picarí and Rispé; and the same rock rises into pointed peaks, more than 20,000 feet above the level of the sea. ‘ Overhanging the town of Marang is a mountain of clay-slate. Upon it, at an elevation of 12,000 feet, heath, juniper, and gooseberry-bushes were growing.’ The primitive ranges, variously modified, continue beyond the confluence of the Li river and Sutluj: but, farther up the Li, were found slate, potters’ clay, marl, sand, stalactitical carbonate of lime, gypsum, &c. In the prosecution of their arduous survey, the travellers again encountered the primitive series of rocks, of various descriptions, but not essentially differing from those which occur in other quarters of the world.

'Though the topic,' says Mr. C., 'be unconnected with the immediate object of this paper, I cannot quit Lieut. Gerard's letters and memoranda without quoting from them the very surprising circumstance, that seeds of a species of campanula were gathered by him at the elevation of 16,800 feet above the level of the sea; on a spot where the temperature was 27° of Fahrenheit's thermometer at noon in the middle of October. The latitude was nearly 32° north. Shrubs were found by him in a vegetating state still higher.'

On the Geology of the North-eastern Border of Bengal. By the Same. — For the specimens and observations which form the ground-work of this geological exposition, Mr. Colebrooke is principally indebted to the friendship of Mr. David Scott, commissioner at Cooch-Behar, in Bengal, who enjoyed various opportunities of visiting different spots of the district to which it refers; and who, though not particularly familiar with mineralogical pursuits, faithfully collected samples of various rocks, and recorded his remarks without prepossession or prejudice. The indications of the primitive masses along the banks of the Brahm-putra, and of the secondary strata of the Caribárí hills, &c. are accompanied by rough sketches of the more prominent mountain-chains and cliffs, with a particular enumeration of the members of their composition: but to cite details would only be to transcribe the paper, and, after all, to retrace the geological features of many less distant regions.

Description accompanying a Collection of Specimens made on a Journey from Delhi to Bombay. By James B. Fraser, Esq. — Owing to Mr. Fraser's imperfect acquaintance with geology, the loss of an entire parcel of specimens, and the inattention of servants, the delineation of his route is less precise and copious than he himself could have desired: but still enough is clearly recorded to mark the great outlines of the rock-formations which he traversed; and it is pleasing to contemplate the analogies which pervade the mineral kingdom from one extremity of our planet to another. We feel, too, the more confident in his statements, as far as they go, because he was attentive to collect specimens wherever he perceived any change in the characters of the rocks, and only from such portions of them as were not exposed to the disintegrating influence of the weather; and because he was careful to observe the junctions of different rocks, wherever it was practicable. From Delhi to Jaypoor, the preponderating rock is quartz, more or less granular, frequently traversed by veins of the same substance, though of a finer texture, and sometimes rising into dentated peaks, or lurking under plains of sand or clay. Between Jaypoor aud Kishenguhur, the country assumes a clayey aspect: but, where the rocks are manifest, they consist of gneiss and granite, the latter approaching to the graphic character, and apparently disposed in strata, dipping at a small angle to the horizon. The same rocks, surmounted with quartz, prevail round the fort of Farraghur, which is seated on a hill about 1200 feet in height. In this hill are lead-mines of considerable richness, but, from want of demand for the produce, not very profitable. In the same neighbourhood is the Sambur salt lake, from which nearly the whole of upper India is supplied with salt.

In proceeding towards Nagore, the hills were observed to deflect to the north-east; and the journey was performed over a plain occasionally diversified by trifling sand-hills, argillaceous bottoms, or arid banks of hard clay and *kunker.* Nagore is seated, to all appearance, on red sand-stone; which, at the distance of fifty miles farther, rises into hills of very moderate elevation. Undulating tracts of country, of a somewhat similar geological description, succeed; until, about Paplee, the primitive ranges recommence, and shoot their peaks from 2000 to 2500 feet above the level of the plains of Marvaur. Below the last range of this series, occurs a compact lime-stone, forming the basis of a considerable tract of country, and commencing the trap-formations of Malwa and the Deccan. Sections of this extensive basaltic territory are exhibited on the precipitous face of the Vindhya mountains.

The secretaries of the Society have shewn, by their remarks subjoined to this communication, that they fully appreciate the value of Mr. Fraser's services; while they point also to several important and striking coincidences between some of the rock-formations in India and those in Great Britain, and other parts of the world. We may add that Mr. Fraser has introduced to our acquaintance a new and extensive field of quartz-rock; which, taken in connection with localities of the same description noted by Humboldt, Macculloch, and others, sufficiently prove that entire regions of that material are no longer to be regarded as geological rarities.

In the *Notices and Extracts from the Minute-Book of the Geological Society,* we have, first, a *Notice on Fossil Plants found at the Col de Balme, near Chamouny in Savoy.* By Mr. De la Beche. — The Col de Balme, which is elevated 7558 feet above the level of the sea, and which is composed of beds of clay-slate, lime-stone, and thin strata of sand-stone, is celebrated for the magnificent view which it commands of the valley of Chamounny, &c.: but it is less known as a repository of those vegetable impressions which are commonly called *Coal-plants.* Some of these, however, have been detected in the sand-stone, and in one instance on clay-slate. It is likewise deserving of notice that they are covered with very thin laminæ of beautifully white talc.

2. *Notice accompanying Specimens of Lead Ore, found in Toad-stone, from near Matlock, Derbyshire.* By Charles Stokes, Esq. — This notice has been inserted with a view to disprove the common but erroneous notion, that lead is not to be found in the toad-stone. The fact is that the veins are generally continued through that substance, though in that case they are not always so profitable as when they occur in the lime-stone.

3. *Notice respecting a Copper Mine at Cally in Kirkcudbrightshire.* By John Taylor, Esq. — This mine, which was discovered by accident, occurs in a district of *killas*, which reminds us of the Cornish repositories. It yields the yellow and coated varieties of ore, with some of the green carbonate; and it promises to reward the trouble of working.

4. *Extract from a Letter from Mr.* William Jack *to* H. T. Colebrooke, *Esq. &c., containing a Notice respecting the Rocks of the Islands of Penang and Singapore.* — Penang is entirely composed of granite, which is occasionally syenitic; whereas Singapore is of secondary composition, and its predominant rock is red sand-stone, which changes occasionally to breccia. A neighbouring hill is composed of argillaceous iron-stone; and the last two appear to be connected with the alluvial deposits of tin, which would require to be carefully explored.

5. *Notice on a recent Deposit of compact Lime-stone.* By Charles Stokes, Esq. — From a specimen of aggregated coral, supposed to be transmitted from the Mediterranean, Mr. Stokes has been led to infer that recent depositions of lime-stone among corals and shells take place in nature, and that one of this description seems to have enveloped the human skeleton which was found in Guadaloupe.

6. *Notice accompanying Specimens from the Neighbourhood of the Gáró Village of Robagiri: extracted from a Letter from* D. Scott, *Esq. of Bengal.* — This article refers to ridges of gneiss, lime-stone abounding in mammalites, and in some places containing the vertebræ of fish, slate-clay, bituminous shale and wood, sand-stone, clay, &c.

7. *Notice on Fullers' Earth found in Chalk, in Sussex.* By F. Sargent, Esq. — Near the village of Bepton, two strata of this substance intersect the upper chalk-formation, at a little distance from the summit of the hill; while underneath, and

about the middle of the hill, is a stratum of chalk-marl, which also appears to contain fullers' earth.

8. *Notice on the Black Oxide of Manganese of Warwickshire.* By S. Parkes, Esq. — This manganese, which was discovered a few years ago near Atherstone and Nuneaton, has been found to contain more oxygen than the Cornish, Devonshire, or Scotish ores of the same substance.

9. *On the Gypsum of Monte Seano. Translated from a Letter from* M. Scipio Breislak, *Inspector of the Nitre Works at Milan.* — This repository is chiefly remarkable for the great quantity of vegetable remains which it envelopes, but which are not readily traceable to distinct genera and species. 'Professor Moretti discovered amongst these plants the leaves of the Salix capræa, the Viscum album, and the Acer platanoïdes, — plants which grow at present in the neighbourhood of the quarry.'

10. *Notice on the Rocks of Attica.* By Joseph Woods, Esq. — The basis of this interesting district appears to consist of primary rocks, and chiefly of mica-slate, with granular lime-stone, of several varieties. Some of the calcareous rocks perfectly resemble those of Gibraltar.

11. *Notice accompanying Specimens from the Bermuda Islands.* By Captain Vetch. — These specimens, though only six in number, are considered as exemplifications of the structure of the islands in question, which appear to have originated from coral reefs. Five of the samples are particularly valuable, since they illustrate the gradations of a fragmented rock to lime-stone which may be regarded as nearly compact.

12. *Notice of some Fossil Shells from Langton-Green, near Tunbridge Wells.* By Sir Alexander Chrichton. — These shells, which were taken from a sand-stone quarry, occur in oval nodules of iron-stone, included in the mass of sand-stone. The casts and impressions of these small bivalves are innumerable.

From this earnest of the New Series of their Transactions, we may confidently anticipate to the Geological Society an accession of reputation, and to the public a more active diffusion of useful and interesting information.

Art. II. *Travels in Ireland,* in the Year 1822; exhibiting Brief Sketches of the Moral, Physical, and Political State of the Country: with Reflections on the best Means of improving its Condition. By Thomas Reid, Surgeon in the Royal Navy. 8vo. pp. 375. 12*s.* Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

This is not the first time that we have had the pleasure of meeting Mr. Reid; who is the author of two voyages to New *South Wales* and Van Dieman's Land, which he performed

formed as surgeon to some convict-ships, and which we noticed in vol. xcviii. p. 447.: paying him a tribute to which he was justly intitled, for the great ability and professional kindness that were unceasingly exerted by him in behalf of the unhappy objects intrusted to his care. The present is neither a botanical nor a political tour: nor is it professional: nor did Mr. Reid want to see fine cities, fine houses, fine pictures, or fine libraries: but his chief object was to make himself acquainted with the actual situation of the peasant, the cotter, of the most miserable and degraded classes of society in the sister-kingdom. If we open the book at randon, we can shew our readers the nature of the information which they may expect. At page 254. we find this truly philanthropic traveller at Waterford, and thus journalizing:

> 'Spent the remainder of the afternoon in looking at the town, and examining the habitations of the poor. I entered not less than sixty-three cabins, in not one of which, and they were not selected on account of their exterior attractions, was there any thing indicative of comfort. The floors of some of them are seven or eight inches below the level of the street; the fires were nearly extinguished in a great many, and ventilation is remarkably defective in all. Parts of the roof have rotted in some places, and fallen in, and by this miserable means air is admitted to a few, but which, it would seem, the occupiers are anxious to exclude. Very few indeed are provided with any thing that can properly be called furniture. No one surely can wonder that this city should never be entirely free from typhus. The clothing of the poor is, if possible, worse than their dwellings; but I am inclined to think they are better fed than those in many other districts. In the slaughtering season, offal is plentiful, and from its cheapness comes occasionally within the reach of the poor.'

Wherever Mr. Reid goes, the first objects of his examination are Prisons, Houses of Correction, Lunatic Asylums, Infirmaries, and, in short, establishments of any nature in which the sick, the insane, the guilty, or the unfortunate are congregated.

The filth, rags, and wretchedness of the lower orders of the Irish are so great, that it may well be believed there is not a public establishment of any sort, not even a prison, in which the inmates are not better fed, clothed, lodged, cleansed, and attended during sickness than they would be if those inmates were at large! Is this a sound state of society? — where the idle, the refractory, and the very criminal should be better off in the world than those who are willing to earn an honest and industrious livelihood, but are unable to find employment! Mr. Reid says that some prisons in Ireland are managed in a *way that proves* directly a premium on crime. 'I have incontrovertible evidence that offences are often committed for the express purpose of getting into gaol, where the culprit is sure of shelter and food; it often surprized me that this expedient was not resorted to by hundreds whom I met in the streets and roads in a state approaching to nudity and starvation.'— Every thing must be estimated by comparison; and perhaps it may be erroneously inferred from this statement that Irish prisons are conducted on the best of all possible plans, with every attention to a due proportion of labor, decency, good morals, religious instruction, and the general amelioration of character. We shall therefore give Mr. Reid's account of some of them.

'6th June. In company with Drs. Harty and Gamble, I visited some of the prisons, of which I shall submit a brief sketch. It will seldom fall to any one's lot to see a worse gaol than the Dublin Newgate, which is badly situated, badly constructed, and badly managed. In space, classification, inspection, education, and employment, it is eminently deficient. The manners of its inmates, particularly the females, are distinguished by horrific ferocity. The most that can be said in its favour is, that it is kept as clean as circumstances will permit.

'The City Marshalsea exhibits a crowded picture of human wretchedness, reflecting disgrace on the callous-hearted individuals who have the power, but want the humanity, to meliorate its condition. Dr. Harty says, "The Sheriff's prison is, in many respects, a more filthy and noxious prison than either of the former; it consists of twenty-five lodging apartments, each about twelve feet square, containing generally from three to ten inmates!!" I am unable to say which of these wretched prisons is the worst.'

The Smithfield Penitentiary at Dublin, and the New Bridewell, are much more creditably conducted.—Let us take another specimen:

'Under the Sessions-house at Dungannon is a gaol, which may be said to be partly underground. This receptacle may boast of every inconvenience that can possibly attend the very worst constructed prisons. So far is classification from being observed, there is no possibility of separating the male from the female prisoners. In the construction of the cells, light and ventilation appear to have been thought unnecessary. These damp and wretched dungeons are ten feet by eight, and are intended for the lodgment of six prisoners each; but I am assured that *seventeen persons have been crammed into one of them.*

'It would really appear that the propagation of crime was alone held in view by the constructors of this prison. The pernicious consequences of having men and women mingled indiscriminately are too obvious to need illustration or argument,—the fact itself is argument. It will, perhaps, be with difficulty believed, that a prison exists in which there is no water-closet, nor any such convenience; here that want is disgustingly manifest.'

The gaol at Armagh, though very deficient as to classification and inspection, is much better, and the males are separated from the females. It was here that one of the female prisoners shewed Mr. Reid a letter which she had just received from her husband, a convict on board the *Mangles*, lying at Cork, and about to proceed to New South Wales. It was signed Arthur M'Cann; and in it he desired his wife "to wait patiently till the end of her sentence, but, when she gets out, to be sure not to leave Armagh without committing a crime that will ensure her to be sent after him."

Though the prison at Antrim has been asserted to answer every purpose for which a gaol is intended, a few only of the females were spinning linen-yarn, and *all* the males were doomed to idleness! In the day-room, measuring 20 feet by thirteen, thirty-six felons were crowded; and the passages to the dormitories are so constructed as to facilitate communication among prisoners of different classes and sexes. After the example of our most amiable and excellent countrywoman, Mrs. Fry, a few ladies here perform the humane task of visiting and instructing the unfortunate females; a similar duty is discharged towards the male prisoners by some gentlemen; and a schoolmaster is provided, whose services are of the highest value.

'The gaol at Downpatrick is almost as bad as it is possible for a building of that sort to be. The construction renders classification, inspection, and employment utterly impracticable. Females of all descriptions, tried and untried, innocent and guilty, debtors and murderers, are all thrown together in one corrupting mass, and kept in a cell not near large enough. Sick or well, there they must remain both day and night. There were twenty-one thus confined when I saw it, one of whom had been sick four months: it would not have surprised me had they been all sick. Over this cell is a place where a school is kept; it contained several spinning-wheels, which is the only kind of industry in the prison.

'The smell from some of the felons' cells was intolerably offensive. The prison is insecure; and so wretchedly constructed, that although room is much wanting, there is one yard of which no use is made; it is covered with weeds and long grass. A school has also been established for the males; and this, as well as that for the females, has been productive of great good, notwithstanding the disadvantages that operated against them.'

At Drogheda gaol, the Infirmary consists of a single ward, in which both males and females must be treated together, if sick, at the same time. Some attempt at classification is made in the prison at Kilkenny, but it is built in a narrow street in *the middle of the city*, and *the floor is six feet below the level of the*

the street. Some time ago the Earl of Ormond and a few others attempted to introduce employment, and spinning-wheels and flax were *gratuitously* provided: but, when the grand jury were requested to allow a salary for a respectable woman to teach and superintend the females, and for a schoolmaster to instruct the males, the spirit of economy induced them to refuse it, and the measure was in consequence dropped! — In the House of Correction at Kilkenny are four sleeping wards, filled with cradles, in each of which two or three persons usually sleep; and thus thirty or forty individuals are every night crowded into one room. A prisoner, named Alexander M'Mullin, was in the gaol at Lifford when Mr. Reid was there (July 26. 1822), who had been tried at the preceding assizes for a felonious attempt, and *acquitted*, but who was still kept in confinement; 'on what grounds neither the gaoler, the sheriff, nor the clerk of the crown could inform me.' (P. 212.) At Waterford, the pernicious practice exists of detaining felons upwards of a year after conviction; and, some years ago, convicts were detained until a batch of seventeen were collected. The prison is very bad: the males are all kept in idleness, but the women occasionally employ themselves in knitting and spinning. It cannot be said, however, that they are perfectly idle in the county-gaol, for Mr. Reid saw 'many of the prisoners gambling, and otherwise very improperly employed.' (P. 252.)

Bad as the gaols are, however, we find that crimes are perpetrated for the express purpose of obtaining in those receptacles an asylum from the piercing and agonizing wretchedness which exists abroad. The number of beggars every where is prodigious, and their importunities are incessant.

> 'The general appearance of the poor, whether begging or working, is truly pitiable; several people labouring in the fields without so much covering as a shirt; a tattered garment fastened round the loins, and covering in shreds only about half the thigh, serves for all. Throughout the summer, work could not be obtained at any wages; and in order to eke out life, the poor were obliged to pawn and sell their rags of clothes; and now they are compelled to go naked. Heaven only knows what will become of them in the winter! This wretchedness is not confined to a single spot; its pressure is felt by thousands, though in some places less severely than in others. The very worst appeared between Clogheen and Fermoy, the road by which the coach travelled through Ballyporeen and Killworth.'

The condition of a convict in New South Wales, says Mr. Reid, who has had the best possible means of judging, 'is ten thousand times more comfortable than that of a peasant in

Ireland — in fact there can be no comparison between them.'— In most of the prisons, we observe, an apartment is appropriated to lunatics: but surely this is most injudicious. A common receptacle for criminals and lunatics! what can be more preposterous? In a room at Tralee gaol, Mr. R. saw *four lunatics chained to the wall.* They were deemed too furious to be taken out for the purpose of exercising either mind or body, and nothing like employment had been tried. This statement presents a striking contrast with the admirable and kind management of the lunatics belonging to the asylum at Lifford, placed under the superintendence of the Reverend Mr. Graham, local inspector of the prison; and yet what a place it is! 'I shall always think on it with horror,' says Mr. Reid; 'from its situation, being partly under ground, it is dark, damp, and unhealthy, and every way wretched. Though not unaccustomed to scenes of misery, the objects I beheld here were quite appalling: the stench that issued from some of the dungeon-cells, the walls of which are so prodigiously thick as to give a notion that the place was originally made bomb-proof, was so loathsome that, to use a vulgar but expressive phrase, "it would knock a horse down." *On procuring a light,* Mr. Reid found that the cells had been recently white-washed, and were as clean as the monstrous structure of the apartments would allow: but the want of light and of ventilation is most grievous. Mr. Graham, however, was approached by the wretched inmates as a kind and indulgent father, and his treatment of them appeared well calculated to inspire such a sentiment: for, since he has had charge of the institution, a greater number of persons have been restored to sanity than in any other of similar extent, notwithstanding the bad structure of the building. Were they caged up here as in many other places, the impure state of the air and the darkness of their cells must have fixed and aggravated the malady: but, under the superintendence of Mr. Graham, the patients are kept in employment where it can be done with safety. He had thirteen working in the fields, and eight others amusing themselves in different ways, when Mr. Reid was there; and their affections are so effectually secured, that very few of them ever think of running away. The number of patients is thirty-three. Corporeal punishment is unknown. The dietary of different places of confinement varies, like the discipline: but it is sometimes regulated according to price, without reference to quantity! 'The prisoners' appetites are expected to act like barometers, and keep pace with the rise and fall of the markets.' (P. 299.)

Mr. Reid found the same difficulty which has always been experienced in Ireland, namely, of ascertaining the amount of its population. There appears to exist among the peasantry an unconquerable aversion to tell the number of which their families consist, and in nine cases out of ten they represent it under the truth. Cabin-population swarms. Mr. R. says:

'Walked through some of the lanes, in the vicinity of Cork, between six and seven o'clock, and visited several cabins after the families had risen. I was desirous of knowing how many persons had taken refuge in those places for the night, but I found the people very unwilling to gratify my curiosity, and in suffering their fears to be overcome, they intimated their expectation of "a treat" for their civility. The following table exhibits a concise view of the result of my inquiries, in eleven houses, on this occasion.

Number of Houses.	Number of Families.	Persons Present.		Persons Absent.		Total in each House.
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
1	2	5	8	2		15
2	3	10	7	3	1	21
3	1	3	1			4
4	4	12	15	2	1	30
5	4	11	12	1	2	26
6	3	9	6	3		18
7	2	5	8			13
8	4	13	11		1	25
9	1	2	4			6
10	3	7	7	3	2	19
11	5	8	12	5	2	27
Total	32	85	91	19	9	204

'If the statement of the persons from whom the foregoing information was obtained may be credited, those cabins average a population of eighteen and a half to each; and even if they deceived me as to the persons belonging to them who were then absent, still those whom I myself numbered give an average of sixteen to each house: it should be remarked also, that all these persons were Catholics.'

At Limerick, the author went into several houses, and found the population greatly beyond any thing he had imagined: three families often occupying one room, and upwards of forty crowding one house. He numbered thirty-one in a house between two and three o'clock in the afternoon, and there was a room containing two more families to which he was not admitted. He has given a table of the total and comparative population in Ireland up to the end of the year 1822; presenting at a view the number of square miles in each county; the number of houses in a square mile; the number of souls to a house; ditto to a square mile; the total number of houses, and of persons; the proportion of Catholics to others; the total number of Catholics; and the total number of those who profess other religions. We should have copied this table, which was executed with great labor, principally by some relatives and friends of Mr. R., but he very frankly tells us that, notwithstanding all the attention that was given to the subject, he fears the statement is far from correct, and feels assured that the population is stated much below what it really is. According to this table, the total number of persons is 7,855,606: the number of Catholics is 6,871,919; and those professing other religions, 983,687. In many places, the proportion of Catholics to Protestants is 40, 60, 80, and in some places 95 to 1.

Some observations on the avarice of landlords, on the general character of the magistracy, on absenteeship, tythes, political disability, and the want of employment and education among the poor, conclude a volume which is highly honorable to the author, and which will be read with a painful degree of interest: — may it likewise be read with a *profitable* degree of interest, by the friends of humanity on both sides of the Channel!

Art. III. *Views of Ireland, Moral, Political, and Religious.* By John O'Driscol, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

When we say that this is a very different work, in its cast and character, from the volume of Mr. Reid which we have just reported, we do not mean to depreciate its merits or derogate from its utility. Mr. R. had almost one exclusive object at heart; viz. to make himself acquainted, by personal inspection, with the actual situation of the lowest and most miserable outcasts, the felon, the lunatic, the beggar, — and perhaps neither last nor least in wretchedness, the half-starved and half-sheltered tenant of the cabin. What he saw, that he describes in plain unornamented language, making on this very account the most forcible appeal to the feelings of his readers. Mr. O'Driscol's 'Views' are incomparably more picturesque and high-colored: for he indulges in the glaring and gaudy eloquence, the unrestrained imagery, and the luxuriant declamation, which are somewhat characteristic of his country. No attempt is made to subdue the ardor of his feelings or the *force* of his imagination, but both are displayed in a corresponding vehemence of diction. Every man has indeed a right to tell his own story in his own way, and without molestation. The garden of nature would be an insipid object, but for the ever-changing hues with which it is variegated, and the countless odors which it exhales; and equally insipid would be the garden of literature, if all the laborers were doomed to cultivate one common style, however chaste and pure.

Mr. O'Driscol is a hearty good Irishman, who loves his country, and fervently prays for her civil and religious freedom, her commercial prosperity, and domestic concord. In examining the present evils of her situation, he does not forget the remedy; and to two, among the many which he discusses, we hope that we may at length congratulate him on the application of some emolient medicines; we mean Tythes, and the inequalities of custom-house duties. The necessity for some commutation of tythes is now recognized by government, and a bill has been prepared to carry this wholesome measure into effect. The Protestant clergy of Ireland will not be the last to benefit from its operation: there is a harsh and rugged line which separates the people of that country from the church; and we sincerely rejoice at any attempt to render it less forbidding and more passable. When the terms of the Union were discussed, the people of Ireland were told that the county of Cork would be in the same situation as the county of Kent or Suffolk, so complete was to be the union of the two kingdoms: but the trader who ships his wares at Cork for Bristol, and the gentleman who goes from one town to another, will find to his cost and annoyance that this unity is no more than a name; and he will be able to discern, says Mr. O'Driscol, no distinction in the formalities that he has to encounter, whether he comes from Cork or Dublin, or from Brest or Bourdeaux. We were glad to observe, lately, that Mr. Huskisson expressed an anxiety that all restrictive duties on commerce should be removed as far as possible, and announced an intention "that all regulations between the trade of this country and Ireland should be placed upon the same footing as the trade between any two ports of England." All this, however, excellent as it is, will not do alone: nothing will give harmony and prosperity to Ireland, and make her a sound, integral part of the empire, but complete emancipation from civil disabilities.

It must be acknowleged that Mr. O'Driscol is a discursive writer. A dissertation on the Potatoe and on Population was very natural: but we are likewise indulged with a theological lecture about Socinianism and Presbyterianism, and a politico-economical lecture about 'Mr. Owen's plan;' from none of which can we profess to have derived much instruction.

Ireland has but one manufacture of any importance:

> 'In the southern division of the island, manufactures have never taken root, though many attempts have been made to plant them there. They have, in almost every case, withered and died. Not only was this the fate of every new manufacture which was introduced; but even the old ones which were brought in by the English settlers, and for a period flourished in some of the chief towns, were at length affected by the blight which seems to pervade this region. Many have perished in the course of the last twenty years, and but very few still maintain an anxious and struggling existence. During all this period, the linen-manufacture of the North has been constantly extending and improving, and it is now vigorous and flourishing. It must be useful to enquire into the secret sources of these opposite results.
>
> 'The springs of much that fertilizes or desolates the world, lie deep and distant from the positions we would assign them. It is obvious, however, that the Union destroyed all the weak and feeble manufactures of the country; all those which required the shelter of the walls of Parliament, and the constant superintendence of a close and anxious concern. The Union stripped them of all this, and exposed them suddenly to the visitation of a rude and withering competition with the manufactures of England; or to what was quite as bad, a competition impending and in view. The Union also, by increasing the number of absentees, withdrew the consumer, and left the fruit of industry to rot upon the ground.
>
> 'We know it has been said, it were better these sickly manufactures should perish. The political economist will lead us to purchase where we can, best and cheapest; and the British politician will advise that the people apply themselves to agriculture, that Ireland may be ready to furnish the materials of war, and to supply the current of life as it wastes itself in the great cities of the empire, while England is engaged in the accumulation of wealth, and the pursuits of industry. This is specious in theory, but it will be found dangerous in practice.
>
> 'The destruction of the small manufactures of the South has greatly diminished the comforts and resources of the people. They were left to rest upon agriculture alone, and this solitary staff has broken under them; and this immense and fierce population have sunk into an abyss of poverty where they are at once objects of pity in their struggles, and of deep and serious apprehension. Those who would consign this numerous people to ignorance and agriculture, should weigh well the consequences. Trade softens and civilizes the people, lays up store for the evil day, and is full of resources. The peasant who can neither understand nor reason upon the causes of his sufferings, has no resource but the pike.
>
> 'We have heard it said, that manufactures do not thrive under the shade of the Papal crosier; and we think that there is, generally,

rally, some truth in this observation. Casting a rapid glance over the various countries of Europe, we must perceive, that manufacturing industry has its fullest and freest current in Protestant lands; — and again, in these lands, this current is observed to be the richest and most abundant in the regions of dissent. We account for this upon the principle that all religious establishments, in a greater or less degree, fetter the spirit of mankind.

'The machinery of an establishment seems to have the effect of some cumbrous interposition between God and his creature; which, when removed, the latter acquires from his near approach to the throne of light and the fountain of inspiration a boldness and decision of mind, and freedom of thought, and activity of habit, which, spreading from the centre of the soul, and radiating from the "horns of his face," overflows upon all the concerns of life; and, while he shakes off the trammels of human authority, raises his character, improves his condition, — sheds around him the light of free enquiry, the strength of an emancipated intellect, and the industry of one accountable for his talents.'

Although we have not selected the above passage as a verification of our remarks on Mr. O'Driscol's style, it affords a sufficient evidence of his partiality for metaphor. In another place, speaking of the established church of Ireland, he says; 'Nothing can be endured in this age which is not supported by public opinion; still less that can continue to exist which shocks and wounds it. The established church of Ireland must clothe its bare bones with the flesh of the people; or though it wore the crown of England upon its head, and wielded the sword of the Russian autocrat, the day is at hand when rottenness and dissolution will claim it as their own, and lay it, without a struggle, in the grave.'

From a note in the second volume, we learn that the author published also a pamphlet which we noticed with much approbation, intitled "Thoughts and Suggestions on the Education of the Peasantry of Ireland." See M.R. vol. xcvi. p. 220.

ART. IV. *Matins and Vespers:* with Hymns and occasional Devotional Pieces. By John Bowring. 12mo. 6*s*. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

SACRED poetry requires at once such high feelings and such peculiar talents, that the barrenness of our literature in this respect is by no means surprizing. With the exception of the holy muse of Milton, few of our more celebrated poets have found their piety warm enough to elicit a devotional strain from their lyres. Dryden's religious feelings were at best of an equivocal character. Pope was a peaceable Catholic,

tholic, more attached to the enjoyment of things present than to the contemplation of future hopes; and, though his juvenile hymn to the Deity is a fine specimen of religious poetry, in his subsequent compositions his piety is of a very sober cast. Thomson has afforded a few successful examples of this style of writing; and in Cowper, when his poetry is untinctured with his morbid melancholy, we have many passages full of the deepest devotional feeling.

In our own day, we possess several poets who have attempted to strike the sacred harp. Lord Byron and Mr. Moore, whom the church would certainly not have selected for her laureates, have presented us with Hebrew Melodies, and Sacred Songs: but the muse of Zion refuses to be wooed by worshippers who have dedicated so large a portion of their affections to her lighter sisters. Mr. Montgomery, whose taste and talents we have always respected, has done much towards increasing our store of devotional song, but the occasional peculiarity of his sentiments has rendered his poetry less valuable. Some of the lyrical pieces dispersed through Mr. Milman's Sacred Dramas are stately and splendid; and, lastly, though first in time and not least in our estimation, we would mention the Hymns that are to be found among the miscellaneous poetry of Mrs. Barbauld, from which we could select one or two most excellent specimens of this species of composition.

It is, indeed, an exceedingly difficult task, in writing sacred poetry, to preserve the true tone of feeling which befits such a subject; to avoid on the one hand the common-places of sentiment and expression, and on the other the exaggerated and rapturous style of the religious enthusiast. The tame prosaic dulness of Sternhold and Hopkins, and the ungovernable wildness of the Moravian hymns, are the Scylla and Charybdis of devotional poetry. To possess dignity tempered with humility, and deep sensibility mingled with strong good sense, is not the lot of every man who has fair pretensions to the fame of a poet; yet these, and more than these, are essential qualifications for him who would touch the sacred lyre.

The volume before us is the production of a gentleman distinguished for his varied acquirements, and for the persecutions which he has endured from one of the *chartered* despotisms of Europe: but in these productions an essential quality is wanting; viz. dignity. The tone of the sentiments throughout is pure and excellent, and the language is elegant and often poetical: but we could have wished for the occasional display of a higher or somewhat severer spirit. The sublime and lofty language of Milton has so formed and fixed our taste, that on themes like these we require a greater weight and *magniloquence* of diction than Mr. Bowring's 'Matins and Vespers' exhibit. On the same ground, we would object to the use of metres which have been almost exclusively applied to light and gay subjects, and which are by no means accordant with the solemnity of sacred compositions. We are aware that our ancestors are said to have adapted their psalms to blythe and lively tunes, yet we scarcely think that the following stanza can be defended on such authority:

'Why should dreams so dark and dreary
Fill my thought?
Is there nought,
Nought to soothe and bless the weary?
Night may wrap the arch of heaven —
Soon a ray,
Bright with day,
Cheers the morn and gilds the even.'

With these drawbacks on our commendation, we have great pleasure in noticing the present little selection; which is as creditable to the talents and feelings of the author, as it must be pleasing to the reader. A few of the pieces are translations, and in others the thoughts have been freely borrowed from various writers; an acknowlegement that is candidly made by Mr. B. in his preface. The ensuing hymn, though somewhat florid in the style, may be considered as a fair specimen of the rest of the work:

'*Tuesday Morning.*

'Almighty One! I bend in dust before Thee,
Even so veil'd cherubs bend;—
In calm and still devotion I adore Thee,
All-wise, all-present friend!
Thou to the earth its emerald robes hast given,
Or curtained it in snow;
And the bright sun, and the soft moon in heaven,
Before Thy presence bow.

'Thou in Thy wisdom spread'st the map of nature,
That map so fair and bright:
Reared'st the arch of heaven — on every creature
Pouring its streams of light.
Thou feed'st with dew the early spring-rose glowing,
Quickenest the teeming sea;
Thine is the storm thro' the dark forest blowing,
Thine, heaven's soft harmony.

'Thine is the beam on ocean's bosom glancing,
Thine is the thunder-cloud,
Thine are the lamps that light our steps, advancing
To the tomb's solitude.

Thou speakest—and all nature's pregnant bosom,
Heaves with Thy mighty breath;
Thou frownest—man, even like a frost-nipp'd blossom,
Drops in the lap of death.

'A thousand worlds which roll around us brightly,
Thee in their orbits bless!
Ten thousand suns which shine above us nightly,
Proclaim Thy righteousness.
Thou didst create the world—'twas Thy proud mandate,
That woke it into day;
And the same power that measur'd, weigh'd, and spann'd it,
Shall bid that world decay.

'Thou Power sublime! whose throne is firmly seated
On stars and glowing suns;
O could I praise Thee—could my soul elated
Waft Thee seraphic tones,
Had I the lyres of angels—could I bring Thee
An offering worthy Thee,
In what bright notes of glory would I sing Thee,
Blest notes of ecstasy!

'Here is my song, a voice of mortal weakness
Just breathing from my breast;
A mingled song, of worthlessness, and meekness,
And feeble hope, at best.
In heaven that voice, up to Thy throne ascending,
Should speak as angels speak,
And joy, and confidence, and glory blending,
Thy seat of light should seek.

'Eternity! Eternity!—how solemn,
How terrible the sound!
Here, leaning on Thy promises—a column
Of strength—may I be found.
O let my heart be ever Thine, while beating,
As when 't will cease to beat;
Be Thou my portion—till that awful meeting,
When I my God shall greet.'

We conclude our notice of this pleasing little volume with some stanzas on the 'Blessings of Instruction.'

'The heart has tendrils like the vine,
Which round another's bosom twine,
Outspringing from the living tree
Of deeply planted sympathy;
Whose flowers are hope, its fruits are bliss,
Beneficence its harvest is.

'There are some bosoms dark and drear,
Which an unwatered desert are;
Yet there a curious eye may trace
Some smiling spot, some verdant place,

Where little flowers, the weeds between,
Spend their soft fragrance all unseen.

'Despise them not — for wisdom's toil
Has ne'er disturbed that stubborn soil:
Yet care and culture might have brought
The ore of truth from mines of thought;
And fancy's fairest flowers had bloom'd
Where truth and fancy lie entomb'd.

'Insult him not, — his blackest crime
May in his Maker's eye sublime,
In spite of all thy pride, be less
Than even thy daily waywardness;
Than many a sin and many a stain
Forgotten — and impressed again.

'There is in every human heart
Some not completely barren part,
Where seeds of truth and love might grow,
And flowers of generous virtue blow:
To plant, to watch, to water there,
This be our duty, be our care!

'And sweet it is the growth to trace,
Of worth, of intellect, of grace,
In bosoms where our labours first
Bid the young seed of spring-time burst,
And lead it on from hour to hour,
To ripen into perfect flower.

'Hast thou e'er seen a garden clad
In all the robes that Eden had —
Or vale o'erspread with streams and trees,
A paradise of mysteries —
Plains with green hills adorning them,
Like jewels in a diadem?

'These gardens, vales, and plains, and hills,
Which beauty gilds and music fills,
Were once but deserts. Culture's hand
Has scattered verdure o'er the land,
And smiles and fragrance rule serene,
Where barren wilds usurped the scene.

'And such is Man. A soil which breeds
Or sweetest flowers or vilest weeds;
Flowers lovely as the morning's light,
Weeds deadly as the aconite;
Just as his heart is trained to bear
The poisonous weed, or flow'ret fair.'

Ve took notice of Mr. Bowring's acceptable gift of trans-
ns from the Russian poets, in our Number for October,
l, p. 127. (vol. xcvi.); and a second volume of that novelty
been recently advertized.

Art. V. *A Second Series of Curiosities of Literature:* consisting of Researches in Literary, Biographical, and Political History; of Critical and Philosophical Inquiries; and of Secret History. By I. D'Israeli. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1*l.* 16*s.* Boards. Murray. 1823.

Though the particular department of literature, in which Mr. D'Israeli has been principally occupied, prevents him from being a very *original* writer, he is still both a very amusing and a very productive compiler, — if he will allow of that designation. He makes frequent calls and re-calls on our attention; and, for the variety and recondite character of his materials, he may be compared with an artist in mosaic, who, with fragments of foreign and many-colored stones, executes regular designs, and principally delights to exhibit the domestic occupations of the muses. It is not their crowns of laurel, their lofty station on Parnassus, or their glorious brilliancy in Hyperion's radiance, that he aspires to represent, but their terrestrial mode of life; telling us in what apartments they sleep, with whom they gossip, how they pass their time, and what is their food. All this is pleasant enough; yet sometimes, perhaps, we have too much about too little.

We can particularize only the more remarkable of these New Curiosities of Literature*; for the list is very comprehensive, and the bare enumeration of the topics in contemplation would form a long catalogue. — First occur *Observations on Bayle;* who is well characterized as the founder of vernacular reasoning in modern Europe, and as having compiled in his Critical Dictionary an arsenal of dialectic resources, which still continues to arm living controversialists. Mr. D'Israeli seems not aware, however, or not of opinion, that Bayle wrote the history of the Sevarambians; a sort of republican novel, which Mandeville translated into English, and which surpasses the Sethos of Terrasson, or the Gaudentio di Lucca of Peerington. — A new edition is announced of Des Maiseaux's translation: but it would have been better to take the advice of Gibbon, and to reprint his beauties compressed into a single folio.

A paper on *Quotation* justly warns a young writer against quoting at second-hand: since it is very common to find a passage cited, which, instead of proving, disproves the point for which it is adduced. This paper might have been much enlivened by adducing instances of happy quotation.

In a dissertation on the *Origin of Dante's Inferno*, the author ascribes the idea of that poem to a French work thus epitomized:

---

* For the former Series of this miscellany, see Rev. vols. vii. xii. xvi. lvi. N. S.

‘ “ The Vision of Charles the Bald, of the places of punishment, and the happiness of the just. *

‘ “ I, Charles, by the gratuitous gift of God, King of the Germans, Roman patrician, and likewise Emperor of the Franks;

‘ “ On the holy night of Sunday, having performed the divine offices of matins, returning to my bed to sleep, a voice most terrible came to my ear; ‘ Charles! thy spirit shall now issue from thy body; thou shalt go and behold the judgments of God; they shall serve thee only as presages, and thy spirit shall again return shortly afterwards.’ Instantly was my spirit wrapt, and he who bore me away was a being of the most splendid whiteness. He put into my hand a ball of thread, which shed about a blaze of light, such as the comet darts when it is apparent. He divided it, and said to me, ‘ Take thou this thread, and bind it strongly on the thumb of thy right hand, and by this I will lead thee through the infernal labyrinths of punishments.’

‘ “ Then going before me with velocity, but always unwinding this luminous thread, he conducted me into deep valleys filled with fires and wells inflamed, blazing with all sorts of unctuous matter. There I observed the prelates who had served my father and my ancestors. Although I trembled, I still, however, inquired of them to learn the cause of their torments. They answered, ‘ We are the bishops of your father and your ancestors; instead of uniting them and their people in peace and concord, we sowed among them discord, and were the incentors of evil: for this are we burning in these Tartarean punishments; we and other men-slayers and devourers of rapine. Here also shall come your bishops, and that crowd of satellites who surround you, and who imitate the evil we have done.’

‘ “ And while I listened to them tremblingly, I beheld the blackest demons flying with hooks of burning iron, who would have caught that ball of thread which I held in my hand, and have drawn it towards them, but it darted such a reverberating light, that they could not lay hold of the thread. These demons, when at my back, hustled to precipitate me into those sulphureous pits; but my conductor, who carried the ball, wound about my shoulder a double thread, drawing me to him with such force, that we ascended high mountains of flame, from whence issued lakes and burning streams, melting all kinds of metals. There I found the souls of lords who had served my father and my brothers; some plunged in up to the hair of their heads, others to their chins, others with half their bodies immersed. These yelling, cried to me, ‘ It is for inflaming discontents with your father, and your brothers, and yourself, to make war and spread murder and rapine, eager for earthly spoils, that we now suffer these torments in these rivers of boiling metal.’ While I was timidly bending over their sufferings, I heard at my back the clamour of voices, *Potentes potenter tormenta patiuntur!* ‘ The powerful suffer torments powerfully;’ and I looked up, and beheld on the shores boiling streams

---

‘ * In MSS. Bib. Reg. inter lat. No. 2447., p. 134.’

and ardent furnaces, blazing with pitch and sulphur, full of great dragons, large scorpions, and serpents of a strange species; where also I saw some of my ancestors, princes, and my brothers also, who said to me, 'Alas, Charles! behold our heavy punishment for evil, and for proud malignant counsels, which in our realms and in thine we yielded to from the lust of dominion.' As I was grieving with their groans, dragons hurried on, who sought to devour me with throats opened, belching flame and sulphur. But my leader trebled the thread over me, at whose resplendent light these were overcome. Leading me then securely, we descended into a great valley, which on one side was darkly tenebrous, yet lighted by ardent furnaces, while the amenity of the other was so pleasant and splendid that I cannot describe it. I turned, however, to the obscure and flaming side; I beheld some kings of my race, agonised in great and strange punishments, and I thought how in an instant the huge black giants who in turmoil were working to set this whole valley into flames, would have hurled me into these gulfs; I still trembled, when the luminous thread cheered my eyes, and on the other side of the valley a light for a little while whitened, gradually breaking: I observed two fountains; one, whose waters had extreme heat, the other more temperate and clear; and two large vessels filled with these waters. The luminous thread rested on one of the fervid waters, where I saw my father Louis covered to his thighs, and though labouring in the anguish of bodily pain, he spoke to me. 'My son Charles, fear nothing! I know that thy spirit shall return unto thy body; and God has permitted thee to come here that thou mayest witness, because of the sins I have committed, the punishments I endure. One day I am placed in the boiling bath of this large vessel, and on another changed into that of more tempered waters: this I owe to the prayers of Saint Peter, Saint Denis, Saint Remy, who are the patrons of our royal house; but if by prayers and masses, offerings and alms, 'psalmody and vigils, my faithful bishops, and abbots, and even all the ecclesiastical order, assist me, it will not be long before I am delivered from these boiling waters. Look on your left!' I looked, and beheld two tuns of boiling waters. 'These are prepared for thee,' he said, 'if thou wilt not be thy own corrector, and do penance for thy crimes!' Then I began to sink with horror; but my guide perceiving the panic of my spirit, said to me, 'Follow me to the right of the valley bright in the glorious light of Paradise.' I had not long proceeded, when, amidst the most illustrious kings, I beheld my uncle Lotharius seated on a topaz, of marvellous magnitude, crowned with a most precious diadem; and beside him was his son Louis, like him crowned, and seeing me, he spake with a blandishment of air, and a sweetness of voice, 'Charles, my successor, now the third in the Roman empire, approach! I know that thou hast come to view these places of punishment, where thy father and my brother groan to his destined hour; but still to end by the intercession of the three saints, the patrons of the kings and the people of France. Know *that it will* not be long ere thou shalt be dethroned, and shortly after thou shalt die!' Then Louis turning towards me: 'Thy Roman empire shall pass into the hands of Louis, the son of my daughter; give him the sovereign authority, and trust to his hands that ball of thread thou holdest.' Directly I loosened it from the finger of my right hand to give the empire to his son. This invested him with empire, and he became brilliant with all light; and at the same instant, admirable to see, my spirit, greatly wearied and broken, returned gliding into my body. Hence let all know, whatever happen, that Louis the Young possesses the Roman empire destined by God. And so the Lord will perform when he shall call me away to another life, who reigneth over the living and the dead, and whose kingdom endureth for ever and for aye."'

We incline more to the opinion that Dante only described in verse certain mysteries, or miracle-plays, which it was customary to perform during the Carnival at Florence, in boats stationed on the Arno; and that many of the individuals satirized had been already held up to public ridicule in these sacred dramas. The original title, *Divina Commedia*, confirms this idea. A comic vein is often discernible in Dante, though his translators have given too solemn and pompous a tone to his method of narration.

Mr. D'Israeli's essay on *Parodies* might have been agreeably enlivened by a citation of some happy specimens. It is justly observed that the French have a form of parody unknown to our literature; and that some entire tragedies, as the *Veuve de Malabar* for instance, have been parodied into farces, so that both pieces have been performed in immediate succession in the same evening. A fortunate parody is the *Surgeon's Warning*, from Southey's clever ballad intitled *The Old Woman of Berkeley*: it is not here mentioned: but to the *Rejected Addresses* ample justice is rendered.

In the *Anecdotes of the Fairfax Family*, we do not observe any thing very singular or interesting: but they have the merit of enforcing an important lesson of prudence, viz. that parents should be very careful, when choosing a profession for their children, to consult the natural bent of their moral qualities. By casting differently the parts in life of the several sons, many unsuccessful families might have been raised into permanent eminence.

It is rather a rash assertion, in the dissertation on the *Hero of Hudibras*, that Butler 'never has written a single passage of indecent ribaldry:' for Butler's genuine *Remains* abound with indecencies, which have not always the apology of his habitual wit. Every English reader must, we think, consider it as remarkable that Hudibras has been admirably translated into French. The version was published at Geneva, and is ascribed to an Englishman of the name of Townsend.

The commentary on Shenstone's *School-Mistress* laments the usual omission of certain wood-cuts, and of a burlesque index, which the poet had attached to his original edition.

Some new historical matter is brought out in the *Loves of the Lady Arabella Stuart;* which is one of the longest, and, in our judgment, one of the best investigations contained in the first volume.

In an account of the *Domestic History of Sir Edward Coke,* it is conjectured that the Holkham library contains a copy of his unpublished *Vade Mecum,* which is recommended to the attention of Mr. Roscoe: who is now forming a catalogue of that collection.

New antiquarian matter occurs in the dissertation on *Masques:* but, when it is maintained that Comus was written (p. 369,) 'to celebrate the creation of Charles the First as Prince of Wales,' we should say that the internal evidence rather supports the tradition that it was intended to deter a young lady of family, who had incurred dropsical complaints, from the farther use of spirituous liquors. She performed the part of the lady; and she is told that the drugged cup of Comus has chained up her nerves in alabaster, and the pure beverage offered by Sabrina is to dissolve the spell.—The fine modern masque of Dr. Sayers, intitled the *Descent of Frea,* deserved to have been quoted with praise. — The *History of New Words* is very imperfect. Mr. D'Israeli claims the merit of having introduced the useful Germanism *father-land,* for *patria,* to signify a person's own country. — On Proverbs, the author writes with more extensive knowlege of the subject.

In the second volume, the *Secret History of Sir Walter Rawleigh* forms an instructive article, and displays original research. Mr. D'Israeli observes:

> 'There is a large work, which is still celebrated, of which the composition has excited the astonishment even of the philosophic Hume, but whose secret history remains yet to be disclosed. This extraordinary volume is "The History of the World by Rawleigh." I shall transcribe Hume's observation, that the reader may observe the literary phenomenon. "They were struck with the extensive genius of the man, who being educated amidst naval and military enterprises, *had surpassed in the pursuits of literature, even those of the most recluse and sedentary lives;* and they admired his unbroken magnanimity, which at his age, and under his circumstances, could engage him to undertake and execute so great a work as his History of the World." Now when the truth is known, the wonderful in this literary mystery will disappear, except in the eloquent, the grand, and the pathetic passages interspersed in that venerable volume. We may, indeed, pardon the astonishment of our calm philosopher, when we con-

sider the recondite matter contained in this work, and recollect the little time which this adventurous spirit, whose life was passed in fabricating his own fortune, and in perpetual enterprise, could allow to such erudite pursuits. Where could Rawleigh obtain that familiar acquaintance with the rabbins, of whose language he was probably entirely ignorant? His numerous publications, the effusions of a most active mind, though excellent in their kind, were evidently composed by one who was not abstracted in curious and remote inquiries, but full of the daily business and the wisdom of human life. His confinement in the Tower, which lasted several years, was indeed sufficient to the composition of this folio volume, and of a second which appears to have occupied him. But in that imprisonment it singularly happened that he lived among literary characters, with the most intimate friendship. There he joined the Earl of Northumberland, the patron of the philosophers of his age, and with whom Rawleigh pursued his chemical studies; and Serjeant Hoskins, a poet and a wit, and the poetical "father" of Ben Jonson, who acknowledged that "it was Hoskins who had polished him;" and that Rawleigh often consulted Hoskins on his literary works, I learnt from a manuscript. But however literary the atmosphere of the Tower proved to Rawleigh, no particle of Hebrew, and perhaps little of Grecian lore, floated from a chemist and a poet. The truth is, that the collection of the materials of this history was the labour of several persons, who have not all been discovered. It has been ascertained that Ben Jonson was a considerable contributor; and there was an English philosopher from whom Descartes, it is said, even by his own countrymen, borrowed largely — Thomas Hariot, whom Anthony Wood charges with infusing into Rawleigh's volume philosophical notions, while Rawleigh was composing his History of the World. But if Rawleigh's *pursuits surpassed even those of the most recluse and sedentary lives*, as Hume observed, we must attribute this to a "Dr. Robert Burrel, Rector of Northwald, in the county of Norfolk, who was a great favourite of Sir Walter Rawleigh, and had been his chaplain. All, or the greatest part of the drudgery of Sir Walter's history for criticisms, chronology, and reading Greek and Hebrew authors, were performed by him, for Sir Walter."* Thus a simple fact, when discovered, clears up the whole mystery; and we learn how that knowledge was acquired, which, as Hume sagaciously detected, required "a recluse and sedentary life," such as the studies and the habits would be of a country clergyman in a learned age.'

---

* I draw my information from a very singular manuscript in the Lansdowne collection, which I think has been mistaken for a boy's ciphering book, of which it has much the appearance, No. 741., fo. 57., as it stands in the auctioneer's catalogue. It appears to be a collection closely written, extracted out of Anthony Wood's papers; and as I have discovered in the manuscript numerous notices not elsewhere preserved, I am inclined to think, that the transcriber copied them from that mass of Anthony Wood's papers, of which more than one sack full was burnt at his desire before him, when dying. If it be so, this MS. is the only register of many curious *facts.*

It is also shewn that the Lives of the Painters, ascribed to Vasari, were chiefly written by Silvano Razzi, his great friend.

A very entertaining paper on the *Expression of suppressed Opinion* contains a singular anecdote respecting Pope John VIII.; whose habits were so effeminate that a satirical medal was struck with the epigraph *Pope Joan*, and on the evidence of this coin was invented the fable of a female having been created Pope.

In a paper on *Writing-Masters*, the anecdote is preserved that, in the reign of Francis I., lived one Angelo Vergecio, whose caligraphy, especially in Greek manuscript, excited the admiration of the learned; and hence was derived the phrase *to write like an angel.*

The following death-bed memorials are collected in the chapter on *The Book of Death:*

'The intrepid Marshal Biron disgraced his exit by womanish tears, and raging imbecility: the virtuous Erasmus, with miserable groans, was heard crying out *Domine! Domine! fac finem! fac finem!* Bayle having prepared his proof for the printer, pointed to where it lay when dying. The last words which Lord Chesterfield was heard to speak were, when the valet, opening the curtains of the bed, announced Mr. Dayroles—"Give Dayroles a chair!" "This good breeding," observed the late Dr. Warren, his physician, "only quits him with his life." The last words of Nelson were, "Tell Collingwood to bring the fleet to an anchor." The tranquil grandeur which cast a new majesty over Charles the First on the scaffold, appeared when he declared,—"I fear not death! Death is not terrible to me!" And the characteristic pleasantry of Sir Thomas More exhilarated his last moments, when, observing the weakness of the scaffold, he said, in mounting it, "I pray you see me up safe, and for my coming down, let me shift for myself!" Sir Walter Rawleigh passed a similar jest when going to the scaffold.

'My ingenious friend Dr. Sherwen has furnished me with the following anecdotes of death. In one of the bloody battles fought by the Duke of Enghien, two French noblemen were left wounded among the dead on the field of battle. One complained loudly of his pains, the other after long silence thus offered him consolation: "My friend, whomever you are, remember that our God died on the cross, our king on the scaffold; and if you have strength to look at him who now speaks to you, you will see that both his legs are shot away."

'At the murder of the Duke D'Enghien, the royal victim looking at the soldiers who had pointed their fusees, said, "Grenadiers! lower your arms, otherwise you will miss, or only wound me!" To two of them who proposed to tie a handkerchief over his eyes, he said, “ A loyal soldier, who has been so often exposed to fire and sword, can see the approach of death with naked eyes, and without fear.”

‘ After a similar caution on the part of Sir George Lisle, or Sir Charles Lucas, when murdered in nearly the same manner at Colchester, by the soldiers of Fairfax, the loyal hero in answer to their assertions and assurances that they would take care not to miss him, nobly replied, “ You have often missed me when I have been nearer to you in the field of battle.”

‘ When the governor of Cadiz, the Marquis de Solano, was murdered by the enraged and mistaken citizens, to one of his murderers who had run a pike through his back, he calmly turned round and said, “ Coward to strike there! Come round, if you dare — face, and destroy me!”

‘ Mr. Abernethy in his Physiological Lectures has ingeniously observed, that “ Shakespeare has represented Mercutio continuing to jest, though conscious that he was mortally wounded; the expiring Hotspur thinking of nothing but honour; and the dying Falstaff still cracking his jests upon Bardolph's nose. If such facts were duly attended to, they would prompt us to make a more liberal allowance for each other's conduct under certain circumstances than we are accustomed to do.” The truth seems to be, that whenever the functions of the mind are not disturbed by “ the nervous functions of the digestive organs,” the personal character predominates even in death, and its habitual associations exist to its last moments. Many religious persons may have died without showing in their last moments any of those exterior acts, or employing those fervent expressions, which the collector of “ The Book of Death” would only deign to chronicle; their hope is not gathered in their last hour.

‘ Yet many with us have delighted to taste of death long before they have died, and have placed before their eyes all the furniture of mortality. The horrors of a charnel-house is the scene of their pleasure. The “ Midnight Meditations” of Quarles preceded Young's “ Night Thoughts” by a century, and both these poets loved preternatural terror.

‘ “ If I must die, I 'll snatch at every thing
That may but mind me of my latest breath;
DEATH'S HEADS, GRAVES, KNELLS, BLACKS[*], TOMBS,
all these shall bring
Into my soul such *useful thoughts of death*,
That this sable king of fears
Shall not catch me unawares.” QUARLES.

‘ But it may be doubtful whether the *thoughts of death are useful*, whenever they put a man out of the possession of his faculties. Young pursued the scheme of Quarles: he raised about him an artificial emotion of death; he darkened his sepulchral

---

‘[*] *Blacks* was the term for mourning in James the First and Charles the First's time.’

study, placing a skull on his table by lamp-light; as Dr. Donne had his portrait taken, first winding a sheet over his head and closing his eyes; keeping this melancholy picture by his bed-side as long as he lived, to remind him of his mortality. Young even in his garden had his conceits of death: at the end of an avenue was viewed a seat of an admirable chiaro oscuro, which, when approached, presented only a painted surface, with an inscription, alluding to the deception of the things of this world. To be looking at "The mirror which flatters not;" to discover ourselves only as a skeleton with the horrid life of corruption about us, has been among those penitential inventions, which have often ended in shaking the innocent by the pangs which are only natural to the damned. Without adverting to those numerous testimonies, the diaries of fanatics, I shall offer a picture of an accomplished and innocent lady, in a curious and unaffected transcript she has left of a mind of great sensibility, where the preternatural terror of death might perhaps have hastened the premature one she suffered.

'From the "Reliquiæ Gethinianæ*," I quote some of Lady Gethin's ideas on "Death."—"The very thoughts of death disturb one's reason; and though a man may have excellent qualities, yet he may have the weakness of not commanding his sentiments. Nothing is worse for one's health, than to be in fear of death. There are some so wise, as neither to hate nor fear it; but for my part I have an aversion for it, and with reason; for it is a rash inconsiderate thing, that always comes before it is looked for; always comes unseasonably, parts friends, ruins beauty, laughs at youth, and draws a dark veil over all the pleasures of life.—This dreadful evil is but the evil of a moment, and what we cannot by any means avoid; and it is that which makes it so terrible to me; for were it uncertain, hope might diminish some part of the fear; but when I think I must die, and that I may die every moment, and that too a thousand several ways, I am in such a fright, as you cannot imagine. I see dangers where, perhaps, there never were any. I am persuaded 'tis happy to be somewhat dull of apprehension in this case; and yet the best way to cure the pensiveness of the thoughts of death is to think of it as little as possible." She proceeds by enumerating the terrors of the fearful, who "cannot enjoy themselves in the pleasantest places, and although they are neither on sea, river, or creek, but in good health in their chamber, yet are they so well instructed with the *fear of dying*, that they do not measure it only by the *present* dangers that wait on us.—Then is it not best to submit to God? But some people cannot do it as they would; and though they are not destitute of reason but perceive they are to blame, yet at the same time that their reason condemns them, their imagination makes their hearts feel what it pleases."

'* My discovery of the nature of this rare volume, of what is original and what collected, will be found in one of the volumes of the First Series of these Curiosities of Literature.'

'Such is the picture of an ingenuous and a religious mind, drawn by an amiable woman, who, it is evident, lived always in the fear of death. The Gothic skeleton was ever haunting her imagination. In Dr. Johnson the same horror was suggested by the thoughts of death. When Boswell once in conversation persecuted Johnson on this subject, whether we might not fortify our minds for the approach of death; he answered in a passion, "No, Sir! let it alone! It matters not how a man dies, but how he lives! The art of dying is not of importance, it lasts so short a time!" But when Boswell persisted in the conversation, Johnson was thrown into such a state of agitation, that he thundered out, "Give us no more of this!" and, further, sternly told the trembling and too curious philosopher, "Don't let us meet to-morrow!"'

On the subject of *Toleration*, which still, alas! requires in this country active defenders, — so far are our laws from having established the political equality of religious sects, — we have here a curious assemblage of facts and details. To the work of Grotius, intitled "*De imperio summarum potestatum circa Sacra*," Mr. D'Israeli ascribes the first impulse towards the doctrine of toleration in modern Europe: but Bayle greatly forwarded the cause by scattered notes in his Dictionary, and by separate publications.

Volume III. offers an agreeable article on *Literary Forgeries*; but it chiefly examines modern specimens of fraud, whereas it would have been more valuable to the historical critic if it had given an enumeration of antient forgeries. — For instance, was Thales, the friend of Lycurgus, the real author of the poems ascribed to Homer? Was the life of Homer, which has been imputed to Herodotus, forged at Alexandria? Was the Batrachomyomachia manufactured there? Is not Ctesias a forgery, or even Quintus Curtius? Are not several dramas, ascribed to Euripides, such as Rhesus, Alexandrian imitations? Was not the Ode to a Rose there first appended to the poems of the original Anacreon? Does the Timæus belong to Plato or Plotinus? The questions of this kind are so numerous, in antient and especially in Alexandrian literature, that authors must be acknowleged to have since become more conscientious and honest.

Concerning the negligent manner in which Hume wrote history, this anecdote occurs:

'At the moment Hume was sending some sheets of his History to press, Murdin's State Papers appeared. And we are highly amused and instructed by a letter of our historian to his rival, Robertson, who probably found himself often in the same forlorn situation. Our historian discovered in that collection what compelled him to retract his preconceived system — he hurries to stop the press, and paints his confusion and his anxiety with all the ingenuous simplicity of his nature. "We are all in the wrong!" he exclaims. Of Hume I have heard, that certain manuscripts at the State-paper Office had been prepared for his inspection during a fortnight, but he never could muster courage to pay his promised visit. Satisfied with the common accounts, and the most obvious sources of history, when librarian at the Advocates' Library, where yet may be examined the books he used, marked by his hand; he spread the volumes about the sofa, from which he rarely rose to pursue obscure inquiries, or delay by fresh difficulties the page which every day was growing under his charming pen. A striking proof of his careless happiness I discovered in his never referring to the perfect edition of Whitelocke's Memorials of 1732, but to the old truncated and faithless one of 1682.'

It is surprizing that Hume's History has never been superseded. He has treated, indeed, with good taste, and at convenient extent, the most popular topic of a chronicler, the annals of his native country: but the introductory or antiquarian part is lamentably defective; the history of the house of Tudor, which is the best portion, admits of several important corrections; and the account of the house of Stuart is not merely partial, but interlarded with imaginary parliamentary argumentations, which are often out of costume, and sometimes contradicted by documents.

The notice of *Pearl Bibles* contains many good Bibliana: but it would be practicable to compile a much more comprehensive and much more entertaining list of all the *bon-mots*, pat words, neat puns, keen jests, gay turns, and lively sayings, which have been founded on portions of the Bible.

In a dissertation on the *Rump-parliament*, we have some neglected extracts from *The Moderate*, a periodical publication devoted at the foundation of the Commonwealth to the overthrow of property. The insignificance of its effects even in those times may serve to tranquillize the alarms of modern Tories against the doctrine of the Spenceans.

In a sketch of Oldys, the well-known Anacreontic song, "Busy curious thirsty fly," is ascribed to him, and not to Cowley, who has generally had the credit of it.

We think that too many superficialities are admitted by this author into his 'Curiosities.' If he had inquired a little farther, he might sometimes correct, and often complete, those fragments of information which he delights to compile and his readers are so glad to receive. His talent appears to us peculiarly adapted to biography, for he toils delighted through the most recondite repositories of secret history, and, with an instinctive aptness for moral portraiture, seizes on the characteristic trains of idea and traits of action in his various personages. The late Dr. Sayers is said to have projected a Series of Lives of the several Pretenders to the Crown of England, but to have executed only two of them, the Lives of Edgar Atheling and Edmund Mortimer. We could wish for Mr. D'Israeli a task as elegantly chosen and as well performed. The biographer opens to us, as it were, the world beyond the grave, and brings us acquainted in their unchangeable form with the excellently wise and great of every age and nation.

Art. VI. *Sketches of Field-Sports* as followed by the Natives of India, with Observations on the Animals. Also, an Account of some of the Customs of the Inhabitants, and Natural Productions; interspersed with various Anecdotes. Likewise the late Nawab Vizier Asoph ul Dowlah's grand Style of Sporting and Character. A Description of the Art of catching Serpents, as practised by People in India, known by the Appellation of Cunjoors, and their Method of curing themselves when bitten. With Remarks on Hydrophobia, and Rabid Animals. By Daniel Johnson, formerly Surgeon in the Honorable East India Company's Service, and Resident many Years at Chittrah in Ramghur. 8vo. pp. 260. 8*s.* Boards. Longman and Co. 1822.

"*Quid dignum tanto feret hic promissor hiatû?*" would be a pardonable exclamation on reading such a title-page as the present, which far outstrips the eloquence of the shewman, but is scarcely more grammatical. We are not, however, inclined to be severe with an author who professes that his unambitious object is to afford entertainment for a winter's eve; and who has not made hot-pressed paper and fine type the pretexts for levying those contributions on the public, which have lately rendered literature one of the heaviest of our national burdens.

The writer, we are informed, left India for Europe so long since as in 1809: but, during his residence in the East, especially about 26 years ago, he was in the habit of accompanying to their field-sports many of the distinguished natives with whom he was acquainted; and he has now undertaken to give a descriptive sketch of the various sorts of game and methods of pursuit then most in request. A more splendid and expensive work on the wild sports of the East has been already published by Captain T. Williamson: but this smaller and cheaper volume will be found to comprize much of his information, with several additional particulars, and to abound with curious and amusing anecdotes.

Mr. Johnson has arranged his materials in twelve chapters, which neatly separate the topics discussed. First occurs a geographical description of the jungle part of the country through which passes the road from Calcutta to Benares, and which was the scene of the author's principal exploits. The rivers are crossed on rafts called *Gurraras*, consisting of a lattice-work of split bamboos, through which the necks of about thirty earthen pots are inserted, half filled with sand to keep them erect. On this floor, merchandise, palanquins, and passengers, are stationed, and pushed across the river with poles. — The second chapter describes a Hunquah, or the annual driving of animals of the forest into nets. — The third treats of the method of catching Quails, Partridges, Jungle-fowl, and all sorts of Birds, and also of the Indian way of training and keeping Pigeons. Hares and deer are placed, or rather misplaced, in this section. — Chap. iv. contains new matter, from which we shall make some extracts. It speaks of Hawking, Grey-hounds, wild Hogs, Wolves, and Hyenas, which last are here said to be tameable. The Dhole, as yet a non-descript, is thus mentioned:

'In the Ramghur hills there exist some animals which I believe have never been fully described by any naturalist. Captain Williamson has given some account of them, calling them Dholes, a name by which I have heard them called, but more frequently by the name of Quihoes; they are extremely shy, and seldom approach any villages.

'In all my rambles through the jungles I have only seen them three or four times, and then there were always a number together, never appearing within shooting distance. They are between the size of a wolf and a jackal; slightly made, of a light bay colour, with fierce eyes, and their faces sharp like that of a grey-hound. I have heard it said that their claws are retractile; if so, they may be considered as belonging to the feline species.

'They hunt their prey in packs, and kill large animals, it is said even tigers, panthers, and leopards; but this, as well as many stories related of them, I consider as fabulous. I can however affirm, that there exist such animals, and I have known them kill wild hogs. It may therefore be believed that they sometimes kill larger animals, for as they are armed with talons, and generally keep together in a body, they must be very formidable.

'A young one was sent by Rajah Futty Narrain, to Mr. Archibald Seton at Gyah, which was so extremely fierce and shy, that it lived but a short time.—

'There is also another species of animal in Ramghur called Gour, a kind of wild bullock of a prodigious size, not well known to Europeans. I have never obtained a sight of them, but have often seen the prints of their feet; the impression of one of them covering as large a space as a common china plate. According to the account which I received from a number of persons, they are much larger than the largest of our oxen; are of a light brown colour, with short thick horns, and inhabit the thickest covers;

they keep together in herds, and a herd of them are always near the Luggo hill. They are also in the heavy jungles between Ramghur and Nagpore.

'I saw the skin of one that had been killed by Rajah Futty Narrain. Its exact size I do not recollect; but I well remember that it astonished me, having never seen the skin of any animal so large.'

This is probably the Urus, or Auer-ochs, of antient Germany, though no longer an inhabitant of Europe. Agatharcides, whose description has been preserved by Photius, first mentioned it; and it is supposed among the learned to be the sort of Ox originally worshipped by the Ægyptians, a branch of the family of the god Apis. The antients maintain that it eats human flesh: but the assertion of such monstrous appetites must be received with a grain of salt.

Bears, buffaloes, and elephants next come before us, and we copy an anecdote of the latter:

'An elephant belonging to Mr. Boddam of the Bengal civil service at Gyah, used every day to pass over a small bridge leading from his master's house, into the town of Gyah. He one day refused to go over it, and it was with great difficulty, by goring him most cruelly with the Hunkuss [iron instrument] that the Mahout [driver] could get him to venture on the bridge, the strength of which he first tried with his trunk, shewing clearly that he suspected that it was not sufficiently strong; at last he went on, and before he could get over, the bridge gave way, and they were precipated into the ditch, which killed the driver, and considerably injured the elephant. It is reasonable to suppose that the elephant must have perceived its feeble state when he last passed over it. It is a well known fact, that elephants will seldom or ever go over strange bridges, without first trying with their trunks if they be sufficiently strong to bear their weight, — nor will they ever go into a boat without doing the same.

'I had a remarkably quiet and docile elephant which one day came home loaded with branches of trees for provender, followed by a number of villagers, calling for mercy (their usual cry when ill used); complaining that the Mahout had stolen a kid from them, and that it was then on the elephant, under the branches of the trees. The Mahout took an opportunity of decamping into the village and hiding himself. I ordered the elephant to be unloaded, and was surprised to see that he would not allow any person to come near to him, when at all other times he was perfectly tractable and obedient. Combining all the circumstances, I was convinced that the Mahout was guilty, and to get rid of the noise, I recompensed the people for the loss of their kid. As soon as they were gone away, the elephant allowed himself to be unloaded, and the kid was found under the branches as described by the people. I learnt from my Sircar, that similar complaints had been made to him before, and that the rascal of a Mahout made it a practice to ride the elephant into the midst of a herd of goats, and had taught him to pick up any of the young ones he directed; he had also accustomed him to steal their pumpions and other vegetables that grew against the inside of their fences like French beans, which could only be reached by an elephant. He was the best Mahout I ever knew, and so great a rogue, that I was obliged to discharge him.'

The fifth chapter hunts down tigers in all the thousand-and-one forms of attack, and concludes with a marvellous account of a gentleman named Henry Ramus, a Judge of Bahar, who had killed three hundred and sixty tigers in the course of his circuits.

Leopards, panthers, foxes, and porcupines now pass in review. Of the former species, two animals, called cheetah and seeharghoosh, are tamed and trained to hunt for man.

> 'It is distressing to see them catch the deer: they are led out in chains with blinds over their eyes, and sometimes they are carried out in carts, and whenever antelopes or other deer are seen on a plain, should any one of them be separated from the rest, the cheetah's head is brought to face it, the blinds removed, and the chain taken off.
>
> 'He immediately crouches, and creeps along with his belly almost touching the ground until he gets within a short distance of the deer, who although seeing him approach, appears fascinated, and seldom attempts to run away. The cheetah then makes a few surprising springs, and seizes him by the neck. If many deer are near each other, they often escape by flight; their numbers I imagine giving them confidence, and preventing their feeling the full force of that fascination which to a single deer produces a sort of panic, and appears to divest him of the power or even inclination to run away, or make any resistance. It is clear that they must always catch them by stealth, or in the manner I have described, for they are not so swift even as common deer.
>
> 'Antelopes are the swiftest of all deer. The keeper carries with him some carrion, commonly bullocks' liver, which he gives the cheetahs when they have caught a deer, to induce them to surrender it. They are then allowed to satisfy their hunger, and are again blinded and chained. I believe they seldom if ever kill more than one deer with each cheetah or seeharghoosh on the same day. Two are often loosened after the same deer, but more frequently after two, or a herd.'

In the seventh chapter, the topic varies a little, and the manners of the human inhabitants of the hill-country are delineated: whose superstitions singularly agree with those recorded in Leviticus, and point to some early communion of instruction between the Jews and Hindoos. The Oriental origin of making April-fools is thus related:

> 'I was at Belleah during the vernal festival of the Huli, and was much gratified to see several old men, at least sixty years of age, dancing on the green, and throwing Habbear [pink powder] over one another with as much cheerfulness and glee as if they had been children. It is a strange coincidence that at this festival, which generally finishes about the end of March or beginning of April, they should have the custom of making Huli fool [as we have of making April fools on the first of that month], by sending letters and making appointments in the names of persons who are known to be absent from their homes, and the laugh against the fool is proportionable to the goodness of the plot.—They have another vernal festival named Bhuvina, on the ninth of Baisach, exclusively for such as keep horned cattle for use or profit, when they erect a pole and adorn it with garlands, and perform much the same rites as used to be adopted by the English on the first of May, which is another strange coincidence in the customs of the two countries. With the Hindoos these are very ancient festivals.'

Chapters viii. and ix. are allotted to the nabob Asop-ul-Dowlah's method of sporting, which was recently detailed in the English Annual Biography and Obituary for 1819. The tenth is occupied with snake-catchers, and their remedies for venomous bites; and the eleventh contains other medical remarks on rabid animals. It does not yet seem generally known that pustules are formed under the tongues of rabid animals, and that the destruction of these pustules by cautery is a practicable mode of cure.

The snake-catchers of India are called *Cunjoors*, a word which has been corrupted by Europeans into *Conjurors*. The animal, to whose instinct they are the most indebted in their calling, is the Mungoose, or Ichneumon; which conducts its conflict with the Cobra de Capello, the most venomous tribe of snakes, with astonishing dexterity.

> 'It is curious to observe with what dexterity these little animals conduct the fight, always attacking the tail first, and by that means disabling the enemy with the least danger to themselves; they then approach nearer and nearer, towards the head, taking off a scale or two at a time, at last, they seize him behind the head and destroy him. I have reason to think that the people who exhibit the fight, in most cases, first deprive the snake of his venomous teeth, as they very unwillingly allow the Mungoose to attach a snake fresh caught. I have had a dozen fowls bitten by the same snake; the first died in a few seconds, and so on, each in a proportionably longer time, to the twelfth, which was more than an hour in dying.'—
>
> 'The method these people adopt to catch snakes is as follows:—As snakes never make holes for themselves, but inhabit those made by other animals, such as lizards, rats, mice, &c., in order

to ascertain if they are occupied by snakes, they examine the mouths of the holes, and if frequented by them, the under part is worn smooth by the snake passing over it, with sometimes a little sliminess; whereas if frequented by any animal having feet, they cause a roughness in the earth. When they discover a hole frequented by a snake, they dig into it very cautiously, and if they can lay hold of its tail, they do it with the left hand, at the same instant grasping the snake with the right hand, and drawing it through with the left, with astonishing rapidity, until the finger and thumb are brought up by the head, when they are secure. I have seen them catch them in the same manner when gliding fast on the ground.'—

'Whenever they attempt to catch snakes, there are always more than one present, and a second person carries with him a goor goorie, which is a smoking machine made generally of a cocoa-nut below, with an earthen funnel above, containing fire-balls: in this fire they have always secreted a small iron instrument about the size of a prong of a table-fork, curved into the shape of a snake's tooth, tapering from above, and whenever they are bitten, they first put on a tight ligature above the bite, then suck the part, and as soon as blood appears, they introduce this instrument red hot into the two orifices made by the teeth, and take some bazar spirits, if they can procure any, in which they infuse a small quantity of bang, [a species of wild hemp,] which mixture by the natives is called gongeah, but sometimes they use tobacco instead of bang.

'As far as I could learn, these are the only remedies that they ever adopt, and according to their account, often succeed. It is a great many years since I saw Fontana on Poisons; but, as well as I can recollect, he gives a drawing and description of the formation of a viper's venomous tooth; however, as few of my readers may be acquainted with its mechanism, I will attempt a short description of it.

'They are generally two in the upper jaw, perforated through their centre from the root to within a line or two of their point, acting as a conductor for the poison: these teeth are extremely sharp and small, — the snakes also have the power of elevating or depressing them. In a large snake they can penetrate the flesh at least a fourth of an inch, and the poison is introduced about the sixth of an inch deep into the flesh of a person bitten: the glands near the eyes, which secrete the poison, have strong muscles attached to, or rather acting on them, which muscles act at the will of the animal, forcing the poison through a cysted conductor into the hollow of the tooth, and through it into the person bitten; which in my opinion clearly shews that any external application * will have little effect in stopping the progress of the poison.

'The apertures made by the teeth are filled with the venom, which being glutinous chokes them, and prevents any blood from flowing.

'* By external application should be understood, unaccompanied with incision or burn.'

flowing, so that the person bitten cannot often discover the exact places of their insertion.'

Mr. J. adds that he has seen 'one kind of snake in India, of a sluggish nature, with beautiful marks on its skin resembling the eyes in a peacock's tail, which has *four* venomous teeth,' the usual number being only *two*; and that he has also 'met with a viper with *three* venomous teeth on one side, and *one* on the other, perfect, and all surrounded at their roots with the usual cyst.'

In the last section we have a communication from Dr. James Johnson, relating to various Indian customs; among which that of smoking tobacco is enumerated (p. 248.) as useful and praiseworthy. — A concluding page states the singular and interesting fact that the letter-press for this volume, which is neatly but not accurately executed, was almost wholly composed by a female child under nine years of age, daughter of Mr. Fowler, printer at Torrington in Devonshire.

We must observe that no remarks occur on fishing, which is probably not much pursued in India for purposes of mere amusement. Yet it may be inferred from the accumulated facts of the author's experience, that the arts of destroying different sorts of animals are extensively understood and skilfully practised among the Hindoos; and that, if it became a serious object with the government to diminish the proportion of vermin, or noxious animals, the appropriate agents might be found in the native population of the country. Nimrod is said to have invented field-sports: but the highest merit of conducting them must evidently consist in directing them against mischievous creatures, or in collecting food for the use of man with the least possible injury to the properties which harbour game. Horace recommends hunting on foot, in his eighteenth epistle of the first book:

> "*Romanis solenne viris opus, utile famæ,*
> *Vitæque, et membris; præsertim cum valeas, et*
> *Vel cursu superare canem vel viribus aprum*
> *Possis.*"

To this activity the climate of Hindostan does not appear to predispose the inhabitants; for they are almost always described as hunting in some sedentary attitude, lounging on the back of an elephant, or sitting on an elevated platform to fire at the passing game.

An engraved fancy-frontispiece is prefixed, illustrative of the subject of the book.

Art. VII. *The History and Antiquities of the See and Cathedral Church of Lichfield;* illustrated by a Series of Engravings, of Views, Elevations, Plans, and Details of the Architecture of the Church: with Biographical Anecdotes of the Bishops of Lichfield and Coventry. By John Britton, F.S.A. 4to. pp. 74. and 16 Engravings. Medium Paper, 1*l.* 18*s.*; Imperial, 3*l.* 3*s.*; Super-royal Folio, 6*l.* 6*s.* Longman and Co.

Art. VIII. *The History and Antiquities of the Cathedral Church of Oxford;* illustrated by a Series of Engravings of that Edifice; with Biographical Anecdotes of the Bishops, and of other eminent Persons connected with the Church. By John Britton, F.S.A. 4to. pp. 50. and 11 Engravings. Medium Paper, 1*l.* 4*s.*; Imperial, 2*l.* 2*s.*; Super-royal Folio, 4*l.* 4*s.* Longman and Co.

Art. IX. *The History and Antiquities of the Metropolitical Church of Canterbury;* illustrated by a Series of Engravings of the Architecture of that Edifice, with Biographical Anecdotes of the Archbishops, &c. By John Britton, F.S.A. 4to. pp. 114. and 26 Engravings. Medium Paper, 3*l.* 3*s.*; Imperial, 5*l.* 5*s.*; Super-royal Folio, 10*l.* 10*s.* Longman and Co.

These works form the continuation of a series of volumes, composing a production which, when finished, will contain very complete and highly interesting descriptions and representations of our several cathedral churches. The volumes formerly published described the edifices of Salisbury, Norwich, Winchester, and York; the merits of which we examined in our Number for July, 1820, vol. xcii. p. 294., and respecting which we were induced to express a favorable opinion. Those that are now before us are similar in plan and execution to the foregoing; and they will doubtless be much prized by all persons who admire, and duly appreciate, the sublimity and beauty of the stupendous and highly interesting edifices which they undertake to record and illustrate. As we have before intimated, however, the execution of this laborious undertaking is rather popular than professional; and, although various plans, elevations, sections, and details of the structures are here given, which will be esteemed of great value by the professed architect and the deep antiquary, the work is more particularly calculated to communicate such information on the subject as the general scholar in his acquisition of knowlege may be desirous of obtaining: in which respect it will be found to possess great merit.

In his preface to the History of the Cathedral of Lichfield, the author states some particulars which refer more immediately to that particular object, and then proceeds to observe with regard to the work in general:

'His practice has been to compare and analyze the contents of all published works, and to obtain, if possible, access to new and authentic sources of information. From these he deduces historical data, and in every instance refers to authorities. Fastidious and scrupulous himself, he concludes that his readers may require the same demonstration and validity of evidence which he regards as necessary to produce conviction. He is also willing to believe that the purchaser of this work, whether architect or antiquary, will be satisfied with nothing less than accurate delineations of the geometrical forms of arches, and other parts of the edifice, by which alone substantial knowledge can be obtained. Many persons, no doubt, prefer pretty picturesque views and artificial effects of light and shade: they seek only to please the eye, and do not wish to trouble the thinking faculties with doubts and investigations. To such persons, however, the Cathedral Antiquities is not addressed; for this is intended to elucidate and define the ecclesiastical architecture and antiquities of our native country, which can only be done by plans, sections, and elevations of buildings. Much controversy and discussion have been employed respecting the shapes and varied gradation of arches; and there still exists much uncertainty and confusion on the subject. All this may be avoided by having them correctly drawn, in elevation, and their mouldings and ornaments defined by horizontal sections. This system is attempted in the present work; in the ground plan, sections of the west front, transept, &c. and in the elevations of the same, with parts at large.'

This volume is divided into five chapters; and the enumeration of their contents will give our readers an idea of the subjects which both they and the other volumes contain. 1. Lichfield, the Birth-place and Home of Persons of Talent: the Origin and Name of Lichfield, — Tradition relating to British Martyrs, — Establishment of Christianity in the Kingdom of Mercia, and of the first Mercian Bishops, — History of the See of Lichfield and Coventry. 2. Historical Notices of the Cathedral, — its Foundation, Erection, successive Alterations and Additions, with an Account of its present State. 3. Description of the Form, Arrangement, and Construction of the Church; of its Exterior and Interior Beauties and Defects; Remarks on its Styles of Architecture, and of the various Portions of the Edifice, with Reference to the accompanying Prints. 4. Account of the Monuments and painted Glass. 5. Biographical Accounts of the Bishops of Lichfield and Coventry.

As the general description given of the Cathedral will no doubt be perused with interest by those who have seen it, and the account will convey information to those who have not, we present it to our readers:

'The Cathedral Church of Lichfield possesses many singularities and beauties. Its plan, design, general features, present state, and situation, are all peculiar, and calculated to prepossess the stranger in its favour. Unlike the generality of cathedrals, which are surrounded and encroached on by common dwellings, shops, and offensive appendages, this is completely insulated, and every part of its exterior may be readily examined. It is placed in an open lawn or close, which is environed with handsome or very respectable detached houses. These have their respective gardens and plantations; and on the north and eastern sides of the close are some fine forest trees. Hence the external appearance of the church and effect of the whole on the visitor are pleasing and interesting. An air of rural simplicity, and genteel life, pervades the precincts of the edifice, and impresses the mind with quiet, respectful, and religious sentiments. About one hundred yards from the south side is a large piece of water, or lake, which may be regarded as a pleasing appendage; and but for a few houses which are placed between it and the church, would be a beautiful and unique accompaniment. In plate vi. the Cathedral is shown as it would appear, if some houses were removed from the south-east; and no person can deny the improved effect that might be thus made. Such a material alteration in the value and property of the ground, though it may be wished for, cannot however be reasonably expected. Another singularity in the edifice, now under notice, is its general exterior form. At the west end are two towers, surmounted by spires, and at the intersection of the nave with the transept, is another tower, with a spire more lofty than those at the west end. Hence every approach to the city is distinguished by the varied combination of these acute pyramids.* From the east and west they are seen grouped in a cluster; whilst from the northern and southern sides the two western spires seem attached; and the central one is shown as springing abruptly from the middle of the roof, and rising much higher than the others. As a distant object, however, this church has no pretensions to grandeur or beauty. Very little but the ridge of the roof, and the three spires, are presented above the houses and contiguous trees. From the east, at Stowpool, the view is picturesque and pleasing, as the three spires are seen grouped together, rising above the surrounding trees and houses; but the church constitutes only a small object in the scene.

'The only approaches to Lichfield Cathedral from the city are on the south-east, and on the west; and these present the best and most interesting features of the edifice. The south side of the Lady Chapel, with its tall, narrow windows, the clerestory of the choir, and its southern aile, with the present vestry, south transept, part of the nave, central and western towers and spires, are successively displayed from the former approach; whilst the latter presents the western front in all its richness and variety of ornament. Though now much mutilated and disfigured by the corrosive effects of the weather, this front still displays simplicity of design, and richness of ornament. It is nearly a flat facade, with small octangular buttress-turrets at the angles. A large double door-way, recessed, is seen in the centre, and two smaller lateral door-ways: each of these was formerly much ornamented with insulated columns, bold archivolt mouldings, charged with foliage, statues, &c. Externally the church may be said to be more picturesque than beautiful. It has no pretensions to grandeur; and therefore cannot vie with the noble and imposing cathedrals of York, Lincoln, Canterbury, Wells, or Durham: nor is it so picturesque or beautiful as Salisbury. The natural colour and quality of its materials indeed detract from its beauty; for the stone is of a dusky red, and of a crumbly ragged character. Though deprived of strongly marked beauties, yet it displays many pleasing and even interesting features. The architectural antiquary will find in it much to admire; for if the operations of time, of wantonness, and of bad restorations, have tended to deface and injure it, there is enough left to indicate its original and pristine design. The exterior, it is true, displays five or six different styles and characters of architecture; but these are not of very opposite and incongruous forms. All is in the pointed style, and of quick succession as to dates, and proportions. There is no part of the circular, or Norman style, and none of the last period of the pointed. These remarks, however, do not apply to the centre spire, or modern restorations. The general character of the *interior of the church* is cleanness, cheerfulness, and elegance. Every part is preserved in good condition, and displays the laudable exertions made by the present dean and chapter to uphold its stability, and improve its beauty. Their conduct, in this respect, is not only highly praiseworthy, but ought to excite the emulation and shame of the curators of some other national churches.'

---

* Rippon Minster had formerly three leaden spires, similarly situated with those at Lichfield; but these are now pulled down.

Lest the style and treatment of some of the plates might not give satisfaction, because not sufficiently shaded to cause picturesque effect, the author observes with respect to one of them which may be thus characterized;

'I directed this view to be drawn and engraved in outline, as a mode best calculated to define and characterize the architectural members of the nave. Here are many lines of columns, mouldings of arches, enriched capitals, and other ornaments; and had these been covered over with colour, for the purpose of imitating the effect and perspective of the scene, the detail of the architecture would have been inevitably obscured and sacrificed by the process. Having seen several interesting architectural subjects spoiled, and the real forms disfigured, by attempts to represent a real perspective and the accidental effects of light and shade in similar scenes, I am convinced that it can only be satisfactorily displayed by an outline, or with a slight degree of shadowing.

In subjects with large columns, and plain arches, &c. as in the nave of Norwich Cathedral, a high degree of finish and bright effect may be successfully and pleasingly employed, without sacrificing any essential details of the building; but in such a subject as the one now under notice, or the chapels of King's College, and Henry the Seventh, it would be absurd and unjust to attempt to display, in a small scale, their numerous beautiful members and details, in union with picturesque effect.'

The following account refers to a work of art of much acknowleged excellence; and, though some readers may hesitate in assenting to the justice of the critical remarks, they will peruse the particulars in general with much interest:

'At the eastern extremity of the south aile is a modern monument, which justly attracts the attention and admiration of all visitors. Though it be not the chief province of this work to animadvert on the productions of living artists, yet the present subject has such imperious claims on the critic and historian, that they would neglect their duty, were they to pass it without comment and without praise. It is a small tomb, raised to commemorate the guileless characters and elegant forms of two female children of the Rev. W. Robinson, and Ellen Jane, his widow. This memorial may be regarded as original in design, and tasteful in execution; and, as calculated to commence a new era in our national monumental sculpture, must be viewed with exultation by every real lover of art. From the demise of Henry the Eighth to the beginning of the present century, the sculpture of this country has rarely presented any thing admirable or excellent. It has either exhibited a vulgar imitation of vulgar life, in monstrous costume, or tasteless copies of Greek and Roman models. The present age, however, is likely to acquire a better, and indeed a good character, and prove to surrounding nations, that while Britain is justly renowned for science, commerce, and arms, she boldly and confidently prefers a claim to competition with former ages in her artists. Some departments have certainly failed, either for want of talents or for want of patronage; but the sculptor is now publicly employed and publicly rewarded: and if something truly English, original, and interesting is not produced, we shall still have cause to attribute the failure to the ungenial climate of Britain, or the want of talents in our countrymen. In traversing the abbey church of Westminster, and that of St. Paul's, we look in vain for tasteful and apposite English sculpture. Almost every subject is disfigured by unintelligible emblems, mythology, and allegory; and crowded with lions, fames, and angels. It is time this incongruity of composition, this violation of taste, be avoided, and that a little of nature, of Shakspeare, and of England, be substituted in the place.

'To appreciate Mr. Chantrey's monument fully and justly, we should inquire what has been effected by the sculptor; what is usually done, and what the art is susceptible of. The Egyptians, *Greeks, and* Romans, have certainly left behind them many works of peculiar beauty and excellence; they have also bequeathed to us many pieces of inferior workmanship. In the former we readily perceive their reference to nature as a prototype; and in the latter, the presumptions of art. It is thus with sculptors of the present age: most of them are wholly educated in the school of art — in studying and copying from the antique; whereas the greatest masters of the old world sought beauty of form and truth of expression in the inimitable and diversified face of nature. Hers is an unerring and unmannered school: it is untrammelled by laws and regulations; every student may readily obtain admission into it, and freely pursue the bent and energy of his genius. From this school arose the artist who executed the monument now under notice: he looked at living models and English forms for prototypes; and has skilfully extracted from the shapeless marble the resemblance of two pleasing female figures. These, however, are not common-place forms, nor imitations of Venuses, Graces, or Hebes; — but they faithfully and feelingly resemble the persons of young and lovely maidens. These are represented as lying on a couch; the head of the eldest impressing the downy pillow, and that of the youngest reclining on the other's bosom. One of its arms is beneath her sister's head, and the other extends over the body. In one hand is a bunch of snow-drops, the blossoms of which are apparently just broken off, but not withered. The faces of both incline towards each other with apparent affection — the eye-lids are closed, and every muscle seems lulled into still and serene sleep: all the other bodily members partake of the same serenity and repose. The arms and the legs, the fingers, and the very toes, are all alike equally slumbering: the drapery is also smooth and unruffled, and is strictly in unison and in harmony with every other part of the design. The whole expression seems to induce silence, caution, and almost breathless solicitude in the observer. A fascinating and pathetic sympathy is excited; at least these were the effects and sentiments produced on myself in contemplating it alone, and towards the close of day. Analyzing it as a work of art, and endeavouring to estimate its claims to novelty, beauty, and excellence, I must own that all my powers of criticism were subdued by the more impressive impulses of the heart. With these sensations, and with mingled emotions of admiration at the powerful effects of English art, and the appeals to nature through this medium, I was turning away from the pleasing group, when the plaintive song of a robin, which had perched in the adjoining window, diverted the train of reflection, but touched another chord of the heart, which vibrated in perfect harmony. *'

With regard to the History of the Cathedral at Oxford, Mr. Britton acknowleges that the prints are not equal in pic-

---

' * If the fastidious critic examines these remarks with a wish to find fault with either the sentiment or language, I have only to observe, in explanation, that they were penned in Lichfield Church, on a fine summer-evening, and with the monument immediately before me.'

turesque effect and style of finishing to the others: but he states that the circumstance 'has arisen from causes which are irremediable.' That some of them are far inferior to others which appeared in the preceding volumes must be noticed by the most indifferent observer: but why the causes were irremediable is not so obvious, and Mr. B. has not informed us. We are aware that an author frequently meets with disappointments from the dilatory conduct of artists: but we have known the imperfect plates receive a higher finish subsequently to their first appearance, and even new plates engraved to supply duplicate impressions and make up the deficiency; and it would have gratified us if some such expedient had been adopted in the present instance. Having watched the progress of the work from its commencement, and appreciated its merits, we have become interested in its success; and consequently the least "falling off" has been observed with emotions far different from those of pleasure. The author, however, promises not to allow 'the embellishments of the subsequent volumes to deteriorate in style or character as they advance in progress,' and we trust that he will succeed in keeping his engagements.

We transcribe the general description of Oxford Cathedral, more particularly because, in consequence of several other parts of the University being more striking, that building is not much known:

'By the accompanying *ground plan* it will be seen that the Cathedral Church of Oxford consists of a nave with its ailes; a transept, to the north, with a western aile; a shorter transept on the south with an aile to the east; a choir from the transept to the east end, with ailes on each side, but which do not continue to the east end; two other ailes or chapels north of the choir; a chapter-house, south of the church, with an intermediate passage, or room; and three sides of a cloister. The proportions, forms, and relative situations of each of these divisions are correctly laid down in the plan, in which the oldest walls, columns, and piers are distinguished by dark colour, and the later additions and alterations are marked with a lighter tint. The measurements of the principal parts are figured, and the horizontal area of all the other parts may be readily found by the scale. The arrangement and forms of the groining, as well as the situations of some of the principal tombs, are also indicated on the plan. It will be seen that the southern transept is shorter by one arch than that on the north side, as a wall is raised between the columns from east to west, and the western aile of the same transept is detached from the church by a wall between the columns. —

'Externally it presents but few interesting or attractive features; and is so much obscured by other buildings, and trees, as to be excluded from any general, or favourable view. Its walls are rough, and left in an apparently unfinished state; with small irregular stones, and large joints: the only part generally seen by and accessible to the public is from the south-west, where the tower and spire are shown rising from the intersection of the nave with the south transept. Hence the south side of the nave, west side of the transept, with the whole of the cloister, are viewed; but these are not calculated to seduce the general visitor to explore the edifice much further.

'Most of our cathedrals are the principal objects of curiosity and beauty in the cities to which they belong; but this of Oxford is not only of inferior size and interest, but is surpassed by many other edifices in this university. The entrance gate-tower, the quadrangle, the hall stair-case, and the hall of this College, are generally regarded as more attractive and admirable than the Cathedral. Hence it is very common for visitors, and even those of rather refined and critical minds, to leave Oxford without examining the building now under notice.'

When we advance to the History of the Cathedral of Canterbury, we find several other particulars stated by the author in his preface, respecting his object in undertaking this work:

'There is not an edifice in England, excepting Westminster Abbey Church, that has attracted more of public attention, or been more fully illustrated by the author and artist, than the Cathedral of Canterbury. By the list of books and prints, at the end of this volume, we shall find evidence to justify this remark. Though aware of the fact, I thought it right and expedient to introduce the metropolitan church of Canterbury into my series of cathedrals; for I was also aware that many of its architectural features had never been published. The sections and elevations of its towers, nave, choir, transepts, and crypts have not been previously offered to the public; and these are indispensably necessary to display its construction, and exemplify its history. Without sections and strict geometrical elevations we can never attain correct information as to the curvature and proportions of arches — the true contour of columns, capitals, and bases — with the relative projections and recesses of various other members in our antient buildings. With these we are furnished with satisfactory data, either for practical imitation or for antiquarian inference. Had this species of illustration been adopted by a Hollar, a Loggan, or a Vertue, and had writers on Christian architecture in the seventeenth or eighteenth centuries made themselves acquainted with the same subject, much irrelevant dissertation and trifling controversy would have been avoided. But the majority of mankind, in all ages, and on all subjects, prefer the pretty to the useful; and seek rather to amuse the fancy than inform the mind. Hence picturesque views, and artificial effects of light and shadow, of black and white, have been repeatedly and continually published and republished in our antiquarian embellishments.* By a natural progress of taste and science, for these improve with age and must last for ever, we are at length commencing and adopting a right course; and I am persuaded that, in a very short time, we shall be fully and explicitly informed of every thing respecting our national antiquities in general, and more especially that of architecture. Zealous in this cause myself, I am anxious to awaken the same zeal in others; habitually fastidious, I also wish to encourage the same spirit in my readers and friends; for by the union and exertion of zeal and fastidiousness, we shall be able to advance rapidly and correctly in our search after truth. The history and the science of Christian architecture are intimately connected with our cathedrals; and by illustrating the last truly and fully, we shall best exemplify the others.'

In the introduction to the description of the cathedral, Mr. B. makes these apposite observations:

'From the earliest annals of the Christian church, in Britain, to the present time, Canterbury has been pre-eminent in history and influence. Its cathedral has also participated in that eminence and that influence: for it was the system of the old Catholic prelates to augment their powers and riches by an ostentatious display of wealth. Hence churches were not only progressively enlarged in size, but progressively augmented in decoration and every species of enrichment. Every succeeding age, and almost every succeeding prelate and abbot, seemed to regard it as necessary or politic to make some addition, or add some new adornment to his church. We find this exemplified in the history of the cathedral now under notice; and we also find that some very extensive as well as expensive re-edifications were made in the fabric, without any apparent reason, and certainly without any ostensible cause. It is true that this edifice was often consumed or greatly injured by fire, and it appears that each new erection was raised in a style, and on a scale to surpass its predecessor. This laudable practice of the ecclesiastical architects was calculated to stimulate and bring into action all the energies of genius. It is a singular, and, at the same time, a lamentable fact, that there was no talent either required or exercised in the country, but in architectural works. Excepting in this art, we hear of nothing truly mental in the early annals of the nation. Savage warfare — unnatural and irrational superstition — bondage of the many and tyranny of the few — characterise the remainder of the

---

'* In "*The Chronological Illustration of the Christian Architecture of England*," I have given nearly the whole of the eighty prints, belonging to the volume, in a light and rather slight style of execution, and mostly in elevation and section, for the purpose of showing the forms and proportions of the various architectural members with precision and accuracy. This volume is intended to embrace a comprehensive review and illustration of the Christian architecture of England.'

people.' It is really delightful to contemplate architecture as a beautiful, elegant, and dignified art, standing alone in this gloomy desert, to watch its progressive advancement in variety and gracefulness, and to see it attract, by its magic influence, the sister-arts of painting and sculpture within its vortex. We may also infer that many of the sciences were necessarily cultivated as essential aids to architecture, and were in various ways and at different times called on to support and adorn their legitimate parent. Architecture, therefore, is not only entitled to our admiration, but to our gratitude. In infancy it was a crude science; in maturity it was, and is, an elegant art. The cathedral now under review warrants these remarks; and at once exemplifies the powers, capabilities, varieties, and merits of Christian architecture. This, like genuine Christianity, is genial, tolerant, expansive, and appeals both to the heart and fancy of man. That heart, indeed, must be flinty, and fancy phlegmatic, which can be unmoved by the present Cathedral of Canterbury. It is an edifice of great extent and amplitude; considerable variety and intricacy; in some parts grand and imposing, and in many others curious, beautiful, and interesting. Considered in its historical relations, as well as in its architectural characteristics, it naturally awakens associations and expectations of varied and imperious interest. In the fabric itself, and in its constructive history, we expect to find much to excite, as well as to gratify curiosity; we look for satisfactory data to illustrate Gothic or Christian architecture: at this place, and in this very fabric, we expect to find some unquestionable examples of Anglo-Saxonic, Anglo-Normanic, and all the progressive styles and varieties of ecclesiastical building; if we fail in finding all that may be wished, we shall still meet with much to gratify and reward our researches.'

We observe with pleasure that the embellishments of this volume are in general much improved, in comparison with those of the preceding: but this point requires the watchful care and close superintendence of the author; since any continued deficiency in the pictorial department will detract considerably from the merit of his publication, and cause it to decline in estimation. So many of his engravings also have been, and still are, of such eminent beauty, that they afford a criterion by which we can try the rest that possesses a dangerous rigor, but should at the same time irresistibly stimulate the author's exertions to maintain the same high claims to praise.

Each of the volumes is concluded with a chronological list of the bishops of the respective sees; the contemporary kings of England and popes; a list of the deans; a list of the books, essays, and prints that have been published relating to the sees and cathedrals; and also of engraved portraits of the bishops and deans: which render the work more complete, and combine with its other merits to intitle it to the *notice and* patronage of a [illegible]ing public.

ART

this form of the disease was accompanied with parotid swellings, it presented no hope; and, according to the most probable calculation, the proportion of recoveries did not exceed ten in a hundred. Cases of this description were chiefly prevalent after the contagion began to commit its first ravages.

'In the second class the pain of the head was intense, thirst, sometimes urgent, countenance flushed, and utterance hurried. The glandular swellings came out slowly, and, after appearing, receded with an aggravation of all the symptoms. The carbuncles became soon gangrenous, and the delirium often resembled the ferocity of a maniac. This description of the disease was nearly as destructive as the former.

'In the last class all the symptoms, as already observed, were, comparatively, very mild—and the glandular tumors proceeded on gradually and kindly to suppuration. This is the form of plague to which I have alluded as affecting those who were found walking about the streets, apparently in health. The average deaths were computed not to exceed sixty in a hundred.'

We are inclined to think that the distinction between the first and the second classes arises from the prominence of the stage of collapse in the one, and of that of excitement in the other: but that, in all cases of recovery, re-action to a certain extent has taken place; and that, in the second class, the inflammatory symptoms are always preceded by a degree of dulness and languor, a kind of cold stage, which no doubt may be of very short duration.

Nothing satisfactory has yet been elicited by the researches of those who have inspected the bodies of patients: but general accounts have been given of enlarged liver, turgid gall bladder, effusion into the pericardium, and appearances of gangrene in the omentum, bowels, and stomach, having been discovered in such dissections. No one, however, appears to have examined the state of the brain or spinal cord after death from plague; nor are any of the dissections described in that detailed and accurate manner, which would lead us to believe that they had been conducted with the requisite care and minuteness. One thing, however, is remarkable, that none of the gentlemen engaged in this apparently hazardous pathological pursuit have been in consequence affected with the disease. Sir James M'Grigor mentions, indeed, that two practitioners were taken very ill after the dissection of a plague-case, and suffered severely in consequence: but it does not distinctly appear that either of them was seized with plague. In Malta, no dissections were undertaken either by Sir A. Faulkner or any of our medical officers; and so fearful of the extension of the disease was the commander of the forces, that, by his order, every medical officer who ventured to feel the pulse of a plague-patient was obliged to undergo a quarantine of many days. Sir Arthur does not appear to have himself examined the pulse: but he states that it had been occasionally felt during the prevalence of the disease, through a tobacco-leaf. This intermedium, we presume, was chosen from a belief in the protecting powers of tobacco: but very fine oiled silk, or gold-beater's skin, would certainly have been preferable as a protection, while either of them would have permitted the pulse to be felt almost as distinctly as by the naked finger.

It has been stated among the characteristics of plague, that, like small-pox and measles, it attacks the same individual only once during life: but the rule is certainly not absolute, nor so uniform as in the two diseases just named; though we are happy to observe that Mr. Tully, in the course of his experience, which was not trivial, met with no instance of a recurrence of the disease in the same person.

Respecting the treatment of plague, nothing new has been suggested by Sir Arthur Faulkner; unless we consider in this light the successful result of two cases, in which a mixture of oil of turpentine with camphor was administered internally by mistake. Although the author is not disposed to attach much weight to the circumstance of these patients having recovered, we think that they deserve attention, and that the experiment ought to be repeated.

The practice of inunction of the whole body with olive-oil, for the cure of plague, was first introduced to the medical public of England by Dr. Duncan in his *Annals* for 1797; and we have now before us a small tract on the subject by Mr. Baldwin, to whom the merit of the discovery, whatever it may be, is decidedly due. The reports of Fra Luigi, a Roman Catholic ecclesiastic of Smyrna, afford strong testimony in favor of this practice; and we are disposed to believe, even on theoretical grounds, that this remedy may prove useful. During what we have supposed to be the first stage of plague, or that of collapse, the powerful friction of the surface with oil is likely to restore the equilibrium of the circulation, and perhaps to enable the system to resist the progress of the disease. During the hot stage, on the other hand, when re-action has supervened, and excitement is high, the cold affusion, of which Sir A. Faulkner has spoken favorably, affords promising hopes of success. — Mr. Baldwin's residence in Egypt, and the long habit which he must have had of speaking the eastern tongues, seem to have given a peculiar character to his language. For example:

with the management of the disease were procured from France, and efficient measures were adopted.

The history of the plague in Cephalonia furnishes another remarkable and gratifying example of the efficacy of an intelligent and energetic health-police, in suppressing that disease; and the exertions of Mr. Tully at Comitato, in that island, demand our warmest approbation. We shall present our readers with his own rapid and animated sketch of his proceedings. In a letter to Major-General Sir Charles Phillips, he says;

'" I did not lose a moment in applying the only effectual remedy to this greatest of all human calamities; scarcely had I been twenty-four hours on the island, when my hospital and camps were established.

'" Comitato, the seat of plague, containing about seven hundred souls, presented a horrid mass of disease. Such was the alarm, that no effectual assistance had been granted to the unfortunate sufferers; and, as might naturally be expected, I found them in a wretched and miserable state.

'" Fortunately the dread of the inhabitants, as well as that of every individual, I may say, in the island, was great, and this was not only their own security, but the only security the country could boast of.

'" As to a cordon there was none; a few tents were pitched here and there upon the mountains. Nevertheless it appears the disease did not pass the village. If this be true, which soon will be ascertained, the malady will be speedily terminated.

'" I am in great hopes the whole disease is concentrated within our camp lines, where it will receive that discipline so desperate an enemy merits."'

He proceeds to observe:

'Two-thirds of the whole of the persons exposed to the contagion had escaped disease, whilst of the many admitted from camp into hospital a large proportion were in a fair way of recovery.—Nine days only had elapsed from the commencement of our operations, when there remained, in all the camps, but four families, for whom I had the least apprehension, as upwards of 360 persons, who had been under different degrees of suspicion, had undergone the strictest discipline, leaving no room whatever to doubt their safety, the whole having been plunged daily into the sea, without regard to age or sex, and all of their susceptible effects having also been daily immersed in sea-water, for the space of two hours, and subsequently exposed to the heat of the sun, the thermometer in the shade on the beach standing at noon at 88°. For effecting these different objects, each camp had its stated hours for each sex, as well as separate places, according to their different degrees of suspicion, and the inhabitants of each tent were marched to and from the sea-side, in separate bodies, by health guards. It was the special duty of these guards to prohibit all communication between the different parties, and to prevent the smallest rag from being left behind, or thrown into the sea by the suspected, and subsequently to conduct the persons in security to their respective tents. The whole of the ground over which the suspected marched was examined by myself morning and evening; this became the more essential, as the greater part of the ground was necessarily traversed by those employed in daily supplying the different tents with provisions. It will of course be understood that the persons for whom sea-bathing was directed were not under any sort of medical treatment, as they were not ranked under the higher class of suspected, a class solely applying to such as had direct communication with persons labouring under disease, or effects presumed to be contaminated, or those persons living in a house where plague was actually known to exist.' —

'Fourteen days only had elapsed from the period of our arrival, until the total extinction of the plague; during which short, but anxious period, it will be readily believed that no exertion was spared, that every one alike laboured, and that no personal consideration, for a moment, intruded to impede the great work that had been intrusted to us.'

The experience of Mr. Tully leads him to an assertion which, from our reading on the subject, we were prepared to expect; viz. that 'the plague every where disappeared before the bayonet and the badge of office.' — The proofs of the contagion of this disease, which he has brought forwards, are too numerous and well authenticated to be overthrown by any specious reasoning on their details, or by sneers (see Dr. Hancock's concluding paragraph, p. 379.) at the credibility of the statements of the manner in which it was imported. These accounts may be inaccurate, or exaggerated, or contradictory, or improbable: but the evidence of the contagion of plague, after its introduction, may notwithstanding be irrefragable. It is not easy, among smugglers and banditti, who are besides sunken in gross superstition, to ascertain correctly the whole and the exact truth.

It may be imagined that the promptitude and decision, which marked the conduct of Mr. Tully as inspector of quarantine, have in some degree shed their influence over his theoretical opinions. Plague he conceives to be communicable solely by contact with the bodies of patients, or with infected articles; and he thinks that the air of a hospital, crowded with pest-cases to such a degree as to cause disease, will not produce plague, but a hospital or effluvial fever, altogether distinct in its nature. To this opinion we cannot subscribe; for we think that the skin of a healthy person can receive the disease only through the absorption of effluvia, and that the membrane of the *bronchiæ* performs that function with infinitely greater force and perfection than the skin, so as to compensate for the partial dilution of the effluvia which may be drawn into the lungs. Sir Arthur Faulkner is inclined to believe that the infection of plague may be received by closely inspiring the breath of a diseased person; and he judiciously remarks that he considers this as a kind of contact.

It now becomes our duty to consider the difficulties and objections which have been raised by Dr. Hancock against the doctrine of the contagion of plague. Although we have perused his essay with attention, we feel very doubtful whether we shall be able to state distinctly his creed on the subject in question. He seems in fact perplexed with the anomalies and apparently unaccountable facts recorded respecting this disease; — unable to deny altogether its contagious nature, yet unwilling to admit it; and undecided as to the ground which he ought to take up on this highly important point. After 349 pages of researches, he comes at last to this conclusion: — ‘ Therefore, the probability, indeed the most natural inference, is that the disease called plague is only the highest degree, or a variety, of common contagious fever.’ (P. 350.) He has even gone so far as to say;

> ‘ Contagion, I apprehend, can do us but little harm, if we guard well our cities and habitations from the sources of mischief in our own borders. Therefore, in contradistinction to Dr. Russel’s opinion, I believe the prevention of an occurrence, so destructive as general pestilence, is to maintain the watch against our domestic more than against our foreign enemies; and that if a pestilential constitution can in reality be produced in any country, without the local causes before mentioned, it is much more likely to pass on harmlessly when such causes do not exist than when contagion is present without them.’

This pestilential constitution of the air is still a mysterious state, which no person has yet ventured to describe; and which, if we can judge by the history of the late epidemic fever, especially in Ireland (see M. R. vol. xcvi.), no conceivable degree of filth, wretchedness, and famine is capable of inducing. If starvation and misery are to be regarded as the causes of plague, which Dr. H. seems to believe, it is singular that, on the first breaking out of that disease, its earliest victims should have been the young and vigorous, which was observed in London, Marseilles, and Malta. Dr. H. has certainly some merit in the laborious exertions which he has made to collect curious and interesting particulars respecting the plague of London in 1665: but we do not think that this is the quarter from which the most correct and luminous history of the laws of pestilence is to be drawn. The knowlege of plague, as of all other diseases, we presume, is daily improving by the accumulation of well authenticated facts; and the disputes with regard to it are not to be settled solely by a reference to Sydenham, and to the writers on that subject down to Dr. Russel; but by a general and unbiassed review of every thing which has been written about it down to the present day. Very different indeed has been the plan pursued by Dr. H. The valuable remarks on plague by Sir James M'Grigor, and the work of the French physician, M. Desgenettes, are passed over (we believe) unnoticed, while Sir A. Faulkner and Mr. Tully are briefly brought to trial in an appendix. The history of the plague of Malta, as given by the former, is fatal to the opinions of Dr. H.; for it was accompanied by no swarms of insects, no disease among the cattle, no famine, no epidemic fever rising gradually into pestilence: but a vessel came into the harbour, having lost a part of her crew by plague; an individual, into whose house an article from the vessel was conveyed, sickened and died with plague-symptoms; and the malady spred itself over the whole island. Dr. Hancock adds, however, that,

> 'Unless some further very material information should be elicited at some future time, which I strongly suspect is wanting for a thorough knowledge of the event, the plague of Malta, as described by Sir A. B. Faulkner and J. D. Tully, must be considered an exception in many points to the general rule, which has usually governed such visitations. It may be peculiar to some of the islands of the Mediterranean, that the invasion of Pestilence is not characterised by that formidable preparation and combination of circumstances, which we have shewn to have existed in other parts of the world at different periods; and Sir A. B. F. may have collected every thing that properly related to that plague.'

Of the tone in which Dr. H. has criticized the volumes of Sir A. Faulkner and Mr. Tully, we cannot speak in praise: nor do we think that the Doctor himself can argue that he was maintaining his own character for good sense and gentlemanly feeling, when he allowed such expressions as this to escape from his pen: 'Let us now hear what J. D. Tully has to say.' (P. 374.)

The means of suppressing plague are now well understood, and have received a most interesting illustration from the work of Mr. Tully. As the great and leading points of management, we must resolve to shut up in their houses those who are still in health; to remove the sick and suspected; and to destroy or purify all articles that may be supposed to be imbued with the matter of contagion. In yellow fever, on the other hand, which Dr. Hancock seems disposed to identify with plague, (pp. 90. 98. 103. 109.) the great object in attempting to check its ravages is to remove the healthy population from the seat of the disease, which has been done at different times with strikingly beneficial effects in the United States of America. Great praise is due to Lieut.-General Sir Thomas Maitland, the commander at Malta and the Ionian islands, &c. for the prompt and efficient measures against the extension of plague which he adopted at both those stations; and the benefit which he thus conferred has been rendered in some degree permanent: for we are informed by Mr. Tully that 'the regulations framed by order of his Excellency now form an important part of the police-code of the island of Malta, and such are the arrangements of the government of Malta on this head, that were plague again unfortunately introduced into the capital, the necessary restrictions for the safety of the population could be put in force within the space of a very few hours.'

Although the treatise of Sir A. Faulkner consists in a great part of matter already laid before the public in his paper on Plague, (see the Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal, 1814,) and in his evidence before the Committee of the House of Commons, it is nevertheless a valuable and interesting production; and it was in some degree necessary to elucidate more fully his views regarding the nature of plague. Mr. Tully, on the other hand, has performed a task of much utility to those who may hereafter be called to direct and carry into execution measures for the suppression of this disease; and his ardor, activity, and enterprize in the cause of humanity well merit imitation. We are happy to observe that it is his intention to follow up the present volume by another publication, containing a medical history of plague, and of its treatment: since the extensive opportunities, which he has had of witnessing the disease, induce us to anticipate some useful information on a subject which we fear will long continue to possess an alarming interest, at least on the shores of the Mediterranean.

ART. XIV. *The Duke D'Ormond*, a Tragedy; and Beritola, a Tale. By Charles Lloyd. Crown 8vo. pp. 285. 8*s*. Boards. Longman and Co. 1822.

WE see no reason to feel disappointed in the favorable opinion which we have hitherto entertained of the poetical genius of Mr. Lloyd, if we may judge from the qualities of this additional volume; for surely no reader of common taste and acquirements can turn over many of its pages, without feeling that they bear the impression of high and energetic powers, as well as of a warm and susceptible heart. Yet these qualities are never so successfully developed in the poetry of Mr. L. as to produce their best effect, but are evidently in want of the pruning hand of a more severe and chastened judge. Even his merits seem to bring along with them their corresponding and somewhat striking defects; and it will be recollected that, in dwelling on his highest qualifications, we never held up his productions as models of correct style, or of polished elegance and classic taste. His language and ideas are rich even to exuberance, and they are his own: he is also full of matter: — but it seems rather to impel him forwards according to its dictates, than to be much under his own control, or even under that of the critic's voice; — a charm so often employed in vain, "charm we ever so wisely."

That Mr. L. has been indebted for many of his peculiarities to what is usually termed the *Lake School* of poetry, is too generally known to require present remark; though we may observe that, while he bears a certain generic resemblance, he has many characteristics which distinguish him from all his contemporaries. This distinction will be found to consist in a greater freedom from its errors, and a greater portion of real nature and originality, which is always sufficient to intitle him to our attention and regard. He has little, for instance, of the dreamy mysticism and low affectation of Wordsworth, — of the overwhelming length and tedious sameness of the Poet-Laureat, — of the obscure wildness, and half-shadowed fantastic forms of things, which so frequently cross the imagination of Coleridge, — or of the strange metaphysical turns and conceits which abound in the poetry of C. Lamb, to whose genius, however, he more nearly approaches. At the same time, he is not possessed of many of the higher and individual excellences of those writers; all of whom, by the very indulgence of their extravagance and aberrations of poetic mind, are enabled perhaps to soar a higher flight, and reach objects of intellectual power and beauty beyond the attainments of those of their opponents who have a more correct and regulated taste. Provided that they can produce something very striking and uncommon, — something of a wild, daring, or imposing nature, — they never feel the least diffidence, however familiarly and absurdly it may be expressed, in putting it forth to the world "with all its imperfections on its head." — If, however, their friend Lloyd does not seem to have imbibed so much of the new leaven as to have leavened the whole mass of his poetry, it is enough to leave traces of its effects in the indiscriminate haste and outpouring — in the untutored strength and vividness — both of his imagery and his language; and, we must add, in the violation of all the minor proprieties and established rules of good taste. Yet, owing to these very freedoms, he has it occasionally in his power

> "To snatch a grace beyond the reach of art."

The same character, but invested perhaps with a greater degree of power and beauty, every where appears impressed on the pages of the present work. To avoid useless observations, and discussions on particular merits and defects, we shall proceed to extract such passages as will give a general illustration of both; trusting the reader's discernment to make a distinction between the two. Though appearing together, the productions before us are of very unequal dates, the tragedy having been written 'twenty-four years ago.' It appears to be wholly the author's own invention; while the story in the tale is borrowed from one of the most familiar and favorite pieces of Boccaccio, and one of the least exceptionable of that luxurious novelist. Mr. L. has treated it in a very judicious and delicate, yet impassioned manner; it betrays nothing of fashionable affectation or levity, and no other blemishes than those attaching to peculiarity of style. His most animated delineations are always such as may be found in lofty and generous characters, and, though highly wrought, are altogether free from blame.

The story of the tale (which stands first in the volume, though placed second in the title,) is preceded by some ingenious and well prefaced remarks; stating rather at length the author's poetical creed and opinions relative to the productions, and analogous to the character which we have already laid down. Beritola is a noble Sicilian lady, reduced by the supposed death of her lord, and by the usurpation of the throne of Sicily by Carlos, who defeats the *legitimate* king, to fly with her infant-boy, and at last to take refuge in the barren island of Ponza; where she subsists on wild berries and roots, with only a solitary she-goat to afford food for her infant.

'That gentle lady was, by length of time,
So to her houseless fortune reconciled,
That she, in that inhospitable clime,
Without a dwelling, — e'en though berries wild
Were her sole food, and banks of fragrant thyme
Her only pillow, and her beverage mild

Its natural springs,—had;—as her destiny,—
E'en though she might go thence,—fixed there to die.'

At length arrives a pinnace with Count Currado, formerly known to her deceased lord; who with difficulty prevails on the lady to renounce the wild secluded scenes to which she had become attached. She at last accompanies him to his country-residence, of which we have a description in this bold and lofty strain:

'The edifice was ancient, massy towers
  Thence peered 'bove branchy woof of aged trees;
The clustering ivy there formed gloomy bowers
  At noon of day: thence oft the wanderer sees
The owl sail silently in evening hours,
  From cornice, battlement, and jutting frieze.
The raven croaks there; and as fails the light
The bat wheels round and round its sultry flight.

'Thence from the chapel-tower peals the stern bell,
  Its sounds reverberate from some neighbouring wood;
At midnight hour thence may be heard to swell
  The distant weltering of the ocean flood;
As through the thick mist tolls the day's slow knell,
  And o'er the groves the large red moon doth brood,
What fathomless masses of deep shade lurk there!
What forms fantastic start of awful fear!

'A book sometimes Currado's lady brought;
  To saintly legions earnestly she lent
An ear: to pious manual whence faith caught
  For deeper zeal a fostering argument.
By her, while oft-times in intensest thought
  On what was passed, whole winter nights were spent,
When the near forest moaned with blast of night,
Her soul to Ponza's rocky isle took flight.

'When with sonorous trumpet came the wind;
  And in those pauses deep, when storms are nigh,
Which in charm'd trance, as 'twere, creation bind,
  In lowest whispers it doth pant and die;
When like the night's stern spirit unconfined
  It spake of fear, and deep-tongued mystery;
When like the lapsing flute's soft melodies,
Silence might seem to listen to its sighs.'

Good as this is, it is perhaps excelled by the following:

'Thus she became a visionary creature;
  The winds talked to her, and the silent moon;
In clouds she traced an intellectual feature;
  And stars were her companions! The boon
Of phantasy seemed to exalt her stature:
  Her eyes were as of one who in day's noon

Conversed with spirits. Such thoughts in her had birth,
She was not as a being of this earth.

'Oft was she rapt with eager presages,
Like Pythian priestess was her very frame
Convulsed with workings from dim messages,
Which, though she felt, she knew not whence they came.
And oft, she said, when most that fury rages—
(And then with intropenetrating flame,
Her eye pierced through impenetrable things,)
"This from my children and my husband springs!"'

Even in these verses certain peculiarities are apparent; and we object to the poetic use of the word *intropenetrating*, which would better become a medical or metaphysical treatise. — Here Beritola's young son, who had assumed the name of Giannotto, flourishes and grows up into a brave and enthusiastic youth, and soon begins to find favor in the eyes of the beautiful daughter of Currado.

'With partial eyes Giannotto she surveyed, —
As well she might: — for manly was his form: —
Nature had most profusely lent her aid
To give him that which doth most surely charm
The female heart! On all his mien there played
Grace, which originates in passion warm,
And lofty; and a high intrepid fire
His eyes now shot, now beamed with soft desire.

'Upon his lips there played a subtle smile,
Whose charm his ivory teeth might well augment;
His rich black hair, in masses, all the while, —
Or, in crisp ringlets on his forehead, — lent
Assistance to those charms which most beguile:
As rich frame doth rich painting ornament,
To aid expression nothing can compare
With fluctuation of luxuriant hair.

'His eye, though piercing, had a furtive glance
Of dewy softness: and his eloquent cheek, —
Whose hue his brows of jet might well enhance, —
Now pale, and now incarnadined, did speak
Language, of which ne'er yet a maiden's glance
The meaning with impunity might seek.
His symmetry! In it you well might trace
Alcides' prowess, with Apollo's grace.

'Thou art a tyrant, Love! — Thou dost delight
To plant thy missiles in enamouring tresses,
On glowing cheeks, on brow of snowy white,
On lips of coral, and in soft caresses,
And thou dost take a pleasure to excite
Passion, where fate imperiously represses
The fond indulgence of that very aim
Which thou dost so mischievously inflame.

'Thou bring'st youth together purposely;
And laughingly dost see their passion grow:
At first mere dalliance it seems to be,
Mere pastime for a summer's day to know;
Then, all at once, thou lay'st aside thy glee,
And dost thyself a mailed tyrant shew,
And spectres rise around thee, and they bear
Poison, and swords, and symbols of despair.

'So did it fare with this enamour'd dame;
At first she thought only to please the sense
Of sight, by viewing beauty, 'gainst whose claim
To admiration none could urge pretence.
As children we forewarn from touching flame
As dangerous, and such sport prohibit hence;
Or as we interdict unlawful book:
On youth like this, so should not lady look.'

We are next treated with a splendid banquet given by the Count to his daughter and friends, described with much raciness of expression and luxurious flow of verse.— Giannotto had here an opportunity of attracting the particular notice of his young mistress, by the intelligent way in which he explained the obscure meaning of the motto in the armorial bearings of her house. Their eyes meet, and she calls on him to hand her a cup of wine: but he is at once so delighted and confused that his hand trembles, a mist comes over his eyes, and he pours the contents on her embroidered dress. The Count observes him, and in anger orders him to leave the room. A flush of indignation suffused the faces of the *unconscious* lovers, and Spina, the lady, vowed in secret that he should be better recompensed and better treated in future. She does not long wait for an occasion, the day being at hand which was fixed by her father for

'A summer's revel at fair residence,
Which a day's journey from his castle stood,
Embowered in thick and venerable wood.'

Thither they proceed, and here a very tempting prospect is held out to us, though something in the epicurean style.

'Arrived: they found the place in all bedight
That well could furnish joyance to each guest;
Shrouded within a near wood's gloom from sight,
A far resounding minstrelsy expressed
All sounds inspiring amorous delight:
Tables were spread, where richest wines, express'd
From most luxuriant vintages, induce
Mantling in bowls — each one to taste their juice.

'The day was cloudless. Through the canopy
Of matted leaves which o'er them were suspended,

Glances of shifting light most sportively
Or played upon the turf, or sometimes blended
Their rays with gems, and crystals, daintily
Which from the neck of high-born dames depended.
And many a flickering beam seemed to enhance
The swift mutations of the mazy dance.

'What saw there Spina? Through the eager train
Her eye was ever on one object fixed.
'Tis a delicious time when we retain —
By understanding which there is betwixt
Us, and a dear loved object, — such a chain
Invisible to all, that — in that mixed,
And giddy circle, we can, thence, defy
Thousands to thwart electric sympathy.

'*Perhaps, at no time Love does more impart
Delicious feeling to the human breast;
Than when it is contrived, with furtive art,
That among multitudes shall be expressed
By under tones, by side-long looks, that heart
To heart is linked. Love then is doubly blessed.
It feels superior to the uninspired
Mortals around, and is with deep trust fired.

'Besides, the mystery that hovers round,
Enhances its deliciousness! E'en so
Did Spina feel, and so her heart did bound —
As her eye following him, when to and fro
Giannotto went, and his form did confound
Or distance, or the crowds that come and go —
E'en for a moment, if he re-appear!
New charm her eye, new music smites her ear.

'The scene becomes more gay, more soothing sweet
The liquid notes of music on the air
Seem with a latent melody replete:
And when she sees him in her presence there,
It is a joy to her when others greet
Her look, her dress, or e'en her converse share
With seeming approbation. — Love so fills
Her heart with joy, that it on all distils.'

Suspecting Giannotto's noble origin, and induced by love, she at last contrives an interview in a delightful grotto, but not unobserved by the Count, who overhears their convers-

---

'* Perhaps, of all the intimations of love none are so *piquant* as those gracefully conveyed by an under manner in a miscellaneous society: the object of these intimations enjoys the complicated transport of gratified affections, of affections gratified with mystery, and of a feeling of triumphant superiority to all the uninspired mortals by whom he is surrounded. — *Isabel*, vol. i. p. 17.'

ation; and, though nothing but the purest and noblest sentiments were expressed, he resolves to rid himself of the lover. On their part, *they* resolve to plight their vows, and the evening-scene of their meeting is finely described.

'Flowers of all sorts there stood in porcelain jars;
  Or round the shafts of marble were enwreathed;
The rose, the musky violet, the stars
  Of the frail jasmine there profusely breathed.—
Birds from far climes glance there in mimic wars,
  Or frolic loves, in golden wire-work sheathed,
Green, orange, blue, gold, crimson, every dye
Of plumed magnificence, there met the eye.

'There odorous frankincense for ever burned:
  Around its walls were satin cushions piled,
Which,—while the eye their rich device discerned
  With wonder,—by their amplitude beguiled,—
And their luxurious softness,—him who yearned
  For daintiest repose, on them to have coiled
His charmed limbs. Such was the fair retreat
In which this pair had doomed at night to meet.

'A hush doth now o'er all the revels steal:
  Yet still the *music* floats upon the breeze,
Which e'en as if the leaves themselves did feel,
  Gushes, in languid lapsings, from the trees.
As its soft notes through tender twilight peel
  It seems to die away in cadences
Fitting the hour; and that hour to it lent,
Or from it caught, a deeper blandishment.

'The distant laugh, the titter of some girl
  Who listens to a sheepish paramour;
The very tones of revelry; the whirl
  Of the gay dance, at that bewitching hour
Seem on the ear like tripping brook to purl:
  To unison, by nature's awful power
Fused are they, till like faint stars' distant light
They modify, not break, the gloom of night.

'The moon now sheds upon the silvery leaves
  A gentle radiance, and the wind seems hushed,
Except where whisperingly, whence foliage weaves
  A bower for it to nestle in, it gushed
As o'er informed with scents which it receives
  From buds and blossoms which profusely blushed
Upon their teeming stalks. Where 'tis not pent
In such an ambush, sleeps that element.'—

'She hears Giannotto's step. 'Twas his indeed!
  How soft it falls on her expecting ear!
Her heart responsive beats to every tread,
  Whose smothered lapse scarce tells her he is there:

Just at that moment did a moon-beam shed
  Upon her sylphy'd form its lustre clear.
Her snow-white dress so softly round her gleams,
She seems a creature born of heavenly dreams.'

While they are pledging their mutual troth, the enraged Currado bursts on them, and orders Giannotto to a dungeon, and the lady to close confinement. Here they had ample time to sigh and deplore their wretched loves; for the poet informs us that they had passed two years in this captivity, when the usurper Carlos was driven from the throne of Sicily, and Giannotto's party (that of the Ghibelines), to which Currado was also attached, now prevailed. These happy tidings brought about an *eclaircissement*, by which the high birth and antient honors of the lover's family are made known to his cruel host; Bertoldo is restored to the disconsolate Beritola; and Currado becomes desirous of making every atonement in his power for his past unkindness to his noble friends. The wasted form of Giannotto, now Guisfredi, is brought forth from bondage, — not to execution, but to gaze on the still beautiful yet faded features of his lady-love; and their friends crowd around them, offering both congratulations and condolence.

'Yes! 'twas to him a most affecting sight
  To see her pale and shrunken! For his sake
He knew that she had thus sustained a blight
  Of all, which usually in young breasts wake
Dreams of impassioned love. An exquisite,
  A permeating tenderness did shake
The very pillars of his inmost life,
When he, in such tried mistress, saw his wife.

And far, far more he loved her, than when she
  Gorgeous, with jewels decked, before him stood;
Now she appealed to that deep sympathy
  Which he had learned, schooled, by the lessons rude,
And bitter conflicts of adversity!
  She was to him a hallowed thing endued
With consecration, whose entire revealing
Was privilege attached to fellow-feeling.'

We close our extracts here; leaving the story where the author would have best consulted the general effect of the whole by also dropping it.

The peculiarities and blemishes, observable throughout this very poetical but rather singularly constructed tale, are just such as might be inferred from the general character already given of the writer. They consist chiefly of inequalities and quaintnesses of style and manner. Dignified language and

mid familiar

familiar language frequently appear in the same verse, and noble thoughts and feelings are clothed in mean or inadequate expressions. The story is not ill arranged: but there is an evident want of firmness and compactness in the connections and transitions; and something too much of analytical reasoning and research, usurping the place of poetic imagery and embellishment. This, however, being one of the articles of Mr. L.'s creed, such conventional errors may be forgiven, and we may discharge our bolts of criticism only against *inferiority* of execution.

We must now attend to Mr. Lloyd's more *youthful* performance; though we imagine, and indeed he in part confesses the fact, that, like many other *minor* pieces, (especially those which are attributed to Pope's nonage,) it has been subjected to the investigation and pruning of maturer years. In general, we look with an eye of suspicion on these boyish effusions, which have lain in an author's desk for upwards of 20 years: but his writings declare, in "thoughts that breathe and words that burn," that Mr. Lloyd's mind is a mirror of truth; and whatever improvements and alterations, therefore, the drama may have more recently undergone, it is truly honorable to the genius of its author. It is the production of a high order of genius; it has every appearance of being quite original; and in its design, as well as in the characters, manners, and language, it manifests a consistency and entireness, remote from imitation, which do not leave us doubtful for a moment. Still it is the result of a conventional spirit: it has less of real nature in it, than of a nature which we might *suppose* to exist; and the whole is in unison with the sort of world which the poet has imagined for it. Flowing from the unchecked impulses of feeling, it bears every where the air of uncontrollable genius, powerful fancy, and a flow and vigor of language which cannot fail to impress us with a *feeling* of reality and truth. The degree of illusion created by the writer is very great: yet the virtues and vices of the characters, — their opinions, manners, and actions, — are all extravagant and improbable when compared with the beings of this world.

The story is simply that of a high-minded romantic character, with a fortune which renders him the object of the flatteries and treacherous designs of some dissipated villains. To accomplish their respective purposes, they seek to betray him into evil courses by their own society and example, and so far succeed as to make him neglect a virtuous attachment, join the company of boon companions, and entangle himself in an affair with a Marchioness de Mielcour; who, while she catches him in her own snares, is herself an instrument in the hands of Courtenaye, whose object is to enrich himself by D'Ormond's ruin. The scene is laid at Paris; where this arch traitor Courtenaye amuses his colleague Despard with the hope of possessing the former object of D'Ormond's affections, the beautiful Julia, who is actually betrayed into his power. — The plot is sufficiently intricate, and the villainy thickens fast round its victims as we proceed; while the broken-hearted Julia and the infatuated D'Ormond divide the interest of the piece. Courtenaye at last succeeds in betraying the latter into a sort of marriage with the Marchioness de Mielcour, in spite of the remonstrances and care of his friend Count Colville: the wretched Julia is brought forwards, to crown the consummate villainy of the parties, into D'Ormond's presence and that of his lady; and, on learning her lover's treachery, she becomes distracted, and soon terminates her woes.

Courtenaye now flatters himself that remorse and despair will soon lead D'Ormond to follow her, when his fortune and the Marchioness will be at his own disposal: but his crimes recoil on himself: he discovers that the unfortunate Julia was his sister, who had been separated from him in infancy; D'Ormond, instead of hanging himself, only *takes his passage to America;* and the lovely Marchioness, smitten with remorse, buries herself in a nunnery. Thus the author very happily preserves the moral of his piece, in a manner which the Stagyrite himself could not have impugned.

To shew the style and versification of the whole by one specimen, we may subjoin the following scene from the last act, in which Courtenaye and Despard consummate a portion of the ruin that they had in view, but not without fearful misgivings of the result. While they are seen conversing together, at D'Ormond's house,

'[*A scream is heard from the apartment within: the door bursts open, and Julia, her hair loose, and in a night-dress, rushes in to Courtenaye and Despard, followed by the Duke D'Ormond, Physician, and the Marchioness de Mielcour.*]

'*Julia.* Is't so? They say he lives! did I not see him? —
Did he not beckon to me from the skies? —
Immortal was he, radiant, unearthly! —
And now they tell me that 'twas all a dream! —
(*Going up to Courtenaye.*)
Did not you mention make to me erewhile
About a sister? — I no brother have!
Oh, could I but believe in any thing! —
But all seems shadowy; all forms indistinct,
And changing every moment! Even now

Your face puts on a thousand different aspects.
Let me at something grasp; I'm falling — falling —
The very firm-set earth seems to give way
Under my feet!
‘ *Physician.* This must not be allowed! —
This lady must be quiet, or there is
No chance the anodyne we have administered
Will prove effectual. If this lady be
Not tranquillized, and speedily, I fear
Greatly the end of this.
‘ *Julia.* Fear, said you? What
Fear you? You all have driven me to this! —
And now pretend astonishment, nay, pity. —
It is too late for that! Who pitied me
Alone and unprotected? I have been
The very mark for insult to exhaust
On me all possible atrocities. —
And now you pity me! I smile at this.
Let me be quiet. Quietness I ask! —
There is but one place where I can indulge
That wish — the grave! Oh, look thou down, look down,
On thy abused, and broken-hearted daughter,
My sainted mother! — But I cannot pray! —
No, no, a cold hand presses on my heart,
As if its very beatings it would stifle! —
I know by your looks that you think me mad!
No, no! I am not mad! I yet distinguish
'Twixt foes and friends; as proof of it, here — here
Will I take up my everlasting rest! —
‘ [*She rushes into the arms of the Duke D'Ormond; while he endeavours to press her to his bosom, her knees faulter, she slips through his arms, and dies at his feet.*]’

The drama abounds in bold and vigorous conceptions, sentiment, and character, with a wide scope of feeling and of fancy, generally expressed in easy and poetic verse. While, however, it manifests a degree of interest and power very unusual in a work produced at the early period assigned, we cannot be blind to its manifold errors and imperfections. It is rather a noble than a correct and masterly production; resembling a fine historical piece, the design of which is great, while the whole is somewhat irregularly and fantastically grouped and colored.' It displays none of the more finished excellences and touches of art, but all is untutored strength; as if the inspiration of the pencil had rather controlled than been directed by its owner's hand. Such an owner, however, is intitled to assert, with the great artist whose boldness and vividness of expression he so nearly resembles, “ *Ed io ancor son pittore.*”

Art. XV. *An Account of the United States of America*, derived from actual Observation during a Residence of Four Years in that Republic: including Original Communications. By Isaac Holmes, of Liverpool. 8vo. pp. 476. 12*s.* Boards. Sold by all Booksellers. 1823.

'It is not half a century since the American eagle stretched forth its pinions; its flight during this short space of time has been rapid, strong, and vigorous; and under the covert of its wings, the oppressed of all nations have found happiness, wealth, peace, and security.' (P. 22.) This is saying a great deal, but perhaps not more than is strictly true. About two hundred years ago, a body of Puritans fled from the religious persecution to which they had been exposed in England, and settled themselves in America, where they were not liable to penal enactments for the sin of non-conformity to an established religion; and from that period to the present, America has been the safe asylum to which those have retreated who have been anywise politically afflicted "in mind, body, or estate" in their native countries. The persecuted have there enjoyed freedom; the hungry have obtained food; and it does not militate against the general truth of Mr. Holmes's eulogy, that the weary emigrant has often experienced disgust and mortification. Such, indeed, must be the case when many have left their homes under false impressions, not calculating on the labor and privations to which they must necessarily be at first exposed, and have found their health and spirits sink under the disappointment and the toil: while many others, seduced by fallacious representations, have purchased land which they had never seen, and which they have afterward discovered to be not worth cultivation. Laborers and mechanics, especially, hearing of the high wages given in the United States, have fancied that they could procure work at any rate which they might chuse to demand, as soon as they set foot on the soil: but, on arriving at large cities, they have often found the supply of labor too great for the demand; and, loitering away their time till their money has been spent, they have then removed to other spots, soured and discouraged. In such circumstances, as every thing was seen through too flattering a medium at first, so now is every thing viewed through a medium which distorts and displeases: the climate is grown cold, and the inhabitants are become inhospitable. It is of unspeakable consequence, therefore, that the irrevocable step (as it may almost be called) of emigration should never be taken, till the most deliberate and impartial balance has been struck between advantages and evils, as ascertained from the best authorities. It is in far-distant regions that nostalgia, the unconquerable desire of returning to his native soil, sometimes preys on the unpitied emigrant, and drives him almost to insanity. To this disease the Swiss are said to be particularly liable; and, when taken into foreign service, they have been known to desert especially after having heard or sung some particular tune, to which they had been accustomed in their village-dances and among their native-mountains:

> " Dear is that shed to which his soul conforms,
> And dear that hill which lifts him to the storms."

This feeling, indeed, is not a stranger even in the breast of savages. Mr. Hunter, in a very interesting account of his own life, lately published, (to which we shall soon attend,) during a residence of nineteen years among the American Indians, has acknowleged its general influence and its power on himself, even after he had tasted the sweets of civilized society. Some of the Indians, also, who have endeavored to live among the Whites, have soon become dissatisfied, and generally returned to their brethren. Let us likewise hear Mr. Holmes:

> ' There was an instance of one who went to reside in Maine: he continued there for some time, cultivating his little spot, and was very industrious; he had with him an only child, about ten years of age: his child died; he had alone to dig a grave; alone he had to inter his child; no one came to mingle his tears with the poor Indian. At length, with a heart bursting with grief, he said, " When white man's child die, Indian be sorry, he help bury him; when my child die, no one speak to me; I make his grave alone: I can no live here." With that he dug up the body of his child, carried it with him 200 miles, and joined some Indians in Canada.'

Some very sensible advice to emigrants is given in the volume before us, on the subject of those natural and painful regrets which not to feel would imply a destitution of all the sympathies of human nature. Early friendships and impressions, perhaps attachments of a tenderer kind, take deep root in the mind, are fixed in the very view and feeling of the soul, and cause all new countries to appear disagreeable. Emigrants should talk and think but little about England; yet, even in that case, it will be a long time before the remembrance of their country will be dispelled, before the American farms will possess the same comforts and conveniences as those of England, and before the people there can be viewed in the same light by Englishmen as their former associates. Every year, however, effaces a little of the impression; and new connections by marriages are formed, which in the

United States sometimes take place very early, and serve to attach an emigrant family to the country of its adoption.

Some time ago, Mr. Holmes published a pamphlet in which he discouraged emigration: but the distresses of the British agriculturist, which have been since forced on his attention, have compelled him to acknowlege that the American cultivator was in an enviable situation when compared with many British farmers. Of late years, numerous instances have presented themselves of industrious tenants who, having often expended several thousands of pounds in stocking, cropping, and cultivating their farms, have found the return on their capitals insufficient to give the landlord his rent: for taxes, tythes, and poor-rates must first be paid. With a capital of five thousand pounds, a man may purchase two thousand acres of land in the United States; four or five hundred acres of which may be cleared and well stocked, and a good house, barns, stables, &c. be built; but the family must all labor; father, mother, sons, and daughters, must all work; for it is probable that no domestic servants can be procured. Let a family, however, says Mr. H., 'emigrate with a determination to labor, and be willing to endure some privations; and in a few years, growing happy and contented, they will find it sweet to eat the bread of independence procured by honest industry.'

The United States now extend a dominion over nearly four thousand miles of coast on the eastern side, from the northern states to the Gulf of Mexico, besides an extensive range on the shores of the Pacific Ocean. The area of this vast republic comprizes two millions five hundred thousand square miles: its population is only about ten millions: but, were its inhabitants as numerous in proportion to its extent as they are in Great Britain, the United States would contain an aggregate of five hundred millions of human beings. Here is abundant scope for emigrants of more than any imaginable number, with soil and climate of every variety, under the freest government in the known world. — It was impossible not to reflect on all these circumstances when we saw the sum of fifteen thousand pounds voted in our parliament, the other day, to facilitate the conveyance of emigrants from the south of Ireland to the Canadas and the Cape of Good Hope. The sufferings which those poor wretches underwent, who were tempted by a similar grant to emigrate to the latter settlement a few years ago, will probably deter many others from following their steps in that direction; and with respect to the Canadas, Mr. Howison[*] has informed us that emigrants thither very commonly take the first opportunity to pass the boundary-line which separates them from the territory of the United States, where they find more commercial activity, more enterprize of every description, and consequently more encouragement for their industry. The probability, therefore, is that by far the greater part of this sum of fifteen thousand pounds will be employed in conveying British subjects to the American republic; — and with what view? To get rid of a redundant population from the most fertile of the British territories at home! — from that Ireland, which is weekly exporting into Liverpool and London her thousands and ten thousands of quarters of corn, which her hungry inhabitants are too poor to purchase! This subject, however, must not now lead us astray.

---

[*] See Review for October last.

Mr. Holmes is rather a diffuse and inaccurate writer: but he makes no pretensions to literary excellence, and his object is to present a modest but true statement of things as they are in the American republic. This is precisely what the emigrant wants; and he will find in these pages a mass of useful information as to the civil constitution of America, the laws established there since the Revolution, its revenues and resources, the price of land, the general state of agriculture and commerce, the manners and customs of the people in different parts, the state of literature, fine arts, education, morals, religion, &c. &c. The revenue of the United States arises entirely from duties payable on the importation of foreign goods, and from the sale of public land; — and here it may be remarked, by the way, that as the tide of emigration seems to be flowing westward, not merely from Europe to America but from several of the eastern states to the Illinois and the banks of the Mississippi, it is not improbable that the vast territory of Louisiana, on the western side of that river, may become of immense value to the United States in a few years. Louisiana was discovered by the French, who ceded it to Spain in 1762: the latter power restored it to the dominion of France, under Napoleon, in 1801; and Napoleon, on the 30th of April, 1803, sold for fifteen millions of dollars a territorial surface of one million four hundred thousand square miles of land to the United States, from which it is separated, or, more properly speaking, to which it is connected, by the noblest river on the continent of America. The government of the United States is in the receipt of about eighteen millions of dollars, and its annual expenditure at present does not exceed sixteen. The regular army consists of not more than eight thousand men; and yet here is a coast of nearly four thousand miles to be garrisoned, to say nothing of the troops required for the interior. Their military strength, however, consists in the militia, amounting to 750,000 men. As a naval power, the American republic is becoming second only to Great Britain: its vessels of war are larger, and in weight of metal heavier, than ours of the same nominal force; cleanliness and order are very strictly preserved in the navy; and, to render both officers and men expert, they are continually employed in firing at marks.

Within a few years, we have all heard and read much about the rapid increase of population in America; and, the fact being admitted, some have ascribed it to the activity of the principle of population under favorable circumstances, others to the immigration of settlers from Europe, and others, perhaps more correctly, to the operation of both. Mr. Holmes remarks:

> 'Notwithstanding the population increases so rapidly, it must be confessed, that at present the country is unhealthy. In the eastern states, human life is not so long as it is in the more mild and settled climates of Europe. In the middle and western states, it is still shorter. In the southern ones it is again less.
>
> 'Consumptions throughout the Union are very common; fever and ague, and all sorts of bilious fevers, prevail. In the summer, the dysentery carries off great numbers of children. In some of the southern states, the yellow fever in summer sweeps away the inhabitants by thousands. At New Orleans, death demands and receives in the sickly season four out of five of all new settlers. I have heard some persons remark, (and they were attached to the country,) that a man of ninety years of age was as great a phenomenon as could be seen. Even in the eastern states, a person of sixty years of age is, to all appearance, as old in constitution, by natural decay, as one in England of seventy. It is likewise a strange, but a correct circumstance, that those in general who attain a great age in America are foreigners, the soundness of whose constitution has been formed in a more genial clime.'

It appears, therefore, that if the "principle of population" be in more active operation in America than in Europe, so likewise is the principle of dissolution. The census of the United States in 1790 was 3,929,326, of which about one-fifth part were slaves; in 1810, the population amounted to 7,239,903; and in 1820, to 9,625,734. The slaves are 1,538,128. As the state of agriculture improves, and Mr. Holmes says it is exhibiting daily evidence of improvement, so will the salubrity of the climate increase: forests are gradually disappearing; and wilds, swamps, and marshes, long the abode of savage beasts and venomous reptiles, are converted into luxuriant corn-fields. Where land is very cheap, and every body is desirous of possessing a great quantity, all *attempt to* cultivate more than they can properly manage:

but the low price of produce, in consequence of very extended culture, affords little encouragement to the farmer. Mr. Holmes says that he was at New Orleans, which is the mart for all the surplus-produce of the western states, in the year 1821, and saw wheat selling at 25 cents, or 12¾*d.* sterling, by the Winchester bushel; and superfine flour was sold at 2½ dollars per barrel of 196 lbs.; while in New York and Philadelphia it was selling at 4 dollars. In 1822, prices were 25 or 30 per cent. higher. The reason for the different market-price of corn in the eastern and the western states is obvious; namely, that in the former are several large cities, and a population employed in manufactures, which create a demand for cattle and grain; while the latter are, at present, destitute of these advantages. Time and competition, however, will bring these inequalities to a level.

American farmers cultivate their own ground, and have no landlord to demand rent, no clergyman to take tythe, scarcely any tax-gatherer to collect impost, and can go among the abundant herds of buffaloes and deer, to shoot what game they please without fear of a gaol. That the Irish peasant should be glad to emigrate from his mud-cottage to the back-settlements of America is natural, and that the British government should pay his passage as far as Kingston or York, on his way thither, is very kind: but how much kinder would it be to ameliorate the condition of the Irish peasantry at home, to tranquillize their country by rescinding the Catholic code, to promote the residence of absentees, (not by Insurrection-acts, but by pacifying that country through the impartial administration of equal laws,) and to encourage the influx of capital by rendering property secure, and facilitating the recovery of debts. Were we to perform these acts of justice and policy, Ireland has the grand staple material, a fertile soil, to support in ease and abundance a population three times as great as that which now starves on its bountiful surface.

In the two chapters which treat on the Manufactures and Commerce of the United States, and of the Soil, Climate, and Productions, Mr. Holmes has very judiciously added, to his account of those which are general, a specification of such natural productions and manufactures as are peculiar to each state. This is a particularly valuable portion of the work.

We have said that the number of slaves amounts to about a million and a half; and having so recently devoted an article to the subject of West India slavery, (see our last Number,) we shall not now describe its hideous features as exhibited in America. Wherever it exists, indeed, the monster is essentially the same: but more loathsome and disgusting does it appear, when contrasted with the proud and elastic freedom which there aggravates its deformity. In thirteen out of the twenty-four states which now constitute the republic of America, the unhappy Negro is yet held in bondage: but to the honor of the eastern states it should be recorded that, since that country has become independent, slavery has been abolished in all of them except New Jersey, and in that state also measures have been taken to effect a gradual abolition. The admission of Missouri into the Union, with a toleration of this odious crime, is much to be regretted as well as censured: but it is creditable to the public feeling on that occasion, that, of those members in Congress from the eastern states who voted for the permission of slavery in Missouri, nine out of ten were not afterward returned; being considered as unworthy of the confidence of their fellow-citizens, because they had acted in contradiction to the known and declared sentiments of their constituents. — With regard to the manners and customs of the Americans, in consequence of the different sections having been originally settled by fugitives from various countries, and on various accounts, these likewise are different. In the middle states, the manners of the inhabitants vary materially from those of the people in the eastern states.

' Here, as slavery exists, and manual labour is to be performed by slaves, many of the owners of plantations, and their families, saunter away their time in enervating indolence. That vigour of mind which characterizes all the inhabitants of New England, is possessed by few in the states of which I am now treating; and these few are engaged in mercantile pursuits, who, although they see idleness and listlessness all around them, yet are free from their contaminating and contagious effects. Wherever there are slaves, or wherever some individuals are in such a miserable state of poverty that they become servile to their masters or employers, the latter will grow arrogant, idle, and ostentatious, and the former will be abject and base. In the southern states, slavery exists in its fullest force; and it has a sensible effect on the manners of the white inhabitants. In Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, and all the southern states, they differ very little in their moral character; and are far from being so strict in that respect as in the eastern, and more especially in the New England states. In favour of the white ladies, an exception, however, must be made; they are equally as virtuous and accomplished as any in the Union. Yet in their manners there is a degree of idleness and listlessness, that is not captivating. This, in some respects, is the effect of the climate, and in others the consequence of having slaves to perform every thing requiring the least exertion.

' In the western country, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, are slave-holding states; but Ohio, Illinois, and Indiana, will not allow of this abominable traffic. In the state of Ohio, the inhabitants differ very little in their manners, &c. from those of the eastern states; and in Illinois and Indiana, there is no doubt they will be the same; but in the others, slavery will have the same injurious effect as in the slave-holding Atlantic and southern states.'

The spirit of independence in America has generated the *language* of independence; and to such a degree is this feeling carried, that the word *master* is not to be found in the vocabulary of white people among themselves, and he who labors thinks that he has conferred on his employer an obligation equivalent to that which he has received. The Americans are high-minded, vain, and unpolished; gaming is a general vice among them; drinking is not a very confined failing; and in their personal conflicts with each other they are perfectly ferocious: duels with pistols, or even with muskets, being prevalent, and fought at the distance of eight or ten paces. Where combat occurs without artificial weapons, the parties bite off each other's noses or ears, and *gouge*, that is, tear out each other's eyes! They have not yet had leisure to cultivate very highly literature and the fine arts: but they appear to have considerable relish for dramatic performances, as the success of many of our heroes of the sock and buskin prove; and education seems to be very generally diffused: while the unlimited freedom of the press, and the direct and positive share which every citizen of the United States may be said to have in the government under which he lives, stimulate him to take a lively interest in public affairs. Accordingly, more news-papers are compiled there, in proportion to the population, than, perhaps, in any other country: it being supposed that more than seven hundred are published every week, and above eighty thousand daily circulated. Scurrility prevails in most of them. Have they learned this from the English, or the English from them?

Throughout the Union, few states inflict death for any crime except murder: but in Virginia a second offence of horse-stealing is punished capitally; and in New York arson is visited with a similar infliction. Most delinquencies are subjected to imprisonment; and, generally speaking, much lenity is extended towards culprits: but Mr. Holmes informs us that mildness of punishment has not been found efficacious in the prevention of crime. It appears, indeed, that the commitments in the United States are nearly proportionate to those of Great Britain; and this in a country without game-laws, the violation of which constitutes so large a portion of the offences perpetrated here. The state-prison near New York generally contains about six hundred prisoners; and in that province frequently a hundred and twenty are under confinement, for counterfeiting or uttering forged bank-notes, and between five and six hundred for grand larceny! This prison, Mr. Holmes says, appears to be well regulated; and all its inmates, except those under solitary confinement, are obliged to work. Indeed, throughout the country the prisons are large work-shops or manufactories; and persons confined in them occasion but little expence to the state, the product of their labor nearly defraying the whole charge of the establishment. We cannot think well, however, of the regulation of a prison in which the gaoler is furnished with discretionary power to inflict corporeal punishment, as is the case here; or in which, from the number of prisoners, the managers are obliged sometimes to put sixteen persons to sleep in a room 'no larger than about five yards in length and four in width.'

The state-prison at Philadelphia, however, has the reputation of being exceedingly well conducted; and inspectors are appointed, who are annually chosen from among the citizens, and act gratuitously. From their report and that of the gaoler, with the consent of the Judge, the treatment of any particular prisoner is regulated. If he be refractory, he is punished by solitary confinement, of which there are three sorts; namely, without light, — with light, — and the mildest species, allowing the prisoner to work. Mr. H. says that, in many instances, offenders have been reformed in these prisons, and, having learned some serviceable mechanical art, have become useful members of society.

We cannot take leave of this work without repeating that it contains a great portion of information that is interesting to the general reader, but of peculiar value to those who may now be vacillating on the verge of emigration.

Art. XVI. *History of the Causes and Effects of the Confederation of the Rhine.* By the Marquis Lucchesini, Member of the Society of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Berlin, and formerly Minister of Prussia at the Court of France. From the Italian. By John D. Dwyer. 8vo. pp. 394. 12*s.* Boards. Warren.

It is a truth well known to the readers and still more to the writers of history, that, after the occurrence of political transactions, a considerable interval must elapse before it is possible to obtain satisfactory materials for the composition of a regular narrative. Accordingly, the public are only now beginning to receive through the press the requisite information for the reign of Bonaparte; and they must yet await the demise of Carnot, Sieyes, Barras, and other actors in the early revolutionary drama, before they can obtain an authentic account of those mysterious scenes. Blunders of this nature, as far as they regard a small portion of the European commonwealth,—the lesser states of Germany,—are in some measure filled up by M. de Lucchesini's book; the chief merit of which consists in presenting an abstract of the politics of the empire from 1792 to 1806: a period of fourteen years which, replete as it was with events of interest to every part of Europe, produced in Germany, above all, changes of importance. Of the more remarkable of these we shall now present a brief notice to our readers.

The alliance of Austria and Prussia against France, in the early part of 1792, naturally rendered the minor states of the empire dependent on those leading powers, and obliged them to make their forces attend the former to the field. The augmented burden of the war in 1793, the indecisive character of the operations of that year, and their positive failure in 1794, created a general aversion to the continuance of hostilities; with a disposition on the part of the petty states to attach themselves to either of the great powers (Austria or Prussia) which should be the first to conclude peace with the French government. This was a powerful motive with the court of Berlin for relaxing her exertions in the field, and for concluding, in 1795, a treaty of peace with France; of which one of the leading features was the establishment of a "line of demarcation," guaranteeing the neutrality of the north-west of Germany under the protection of Prussia.

The complete conquest of the Netherlands by the French in 1794 enabled them to accomplish a plan, which is said to have been a favorite object with their government ever since the age of Cardinal Richelieu; we mean the extension of their territory to the Rhine:—but, as it would have been harsh to despoil the princes whose sovereignty was lost to them by the accidental circumstance of local position, the ingenious politicians of the day brought forwards a system of indemnity, of which the basis was the *secularization*, as they termed it, of the ecclesiastical states. The great dignitaries of the church of Rome being, like their humbler brethren, forbidden to marry, it followed that the ruler of an ecclesiastical state lost his interest in his territory with his life; and hence arose the plan of indemnifying them by a pension or life-rent, on the acceptance of which their territory was to be secularized, that is, incorporated with the possessions of one or other of the secular princes who had been obliged to relinquish his dominions on the French side of the Rhine. Scarcely, however, had this project of indemnity been proposed, when, in the autumn of 1795, negotiation was suspended and military operations renewed. These were conducted on the side of Austria by Clairfait, and for a time the efforts of the French were baffled by the talents of that distinguished commander. He resigned in 1796, but left behind him men capable of guiding the tactics of the Archduke Charles, and of arresting for another year the invasion of the empire. At last, however, the successes of Bonaparte in Piedmont, in Lombardy, and eventually in the hereditary states of Austria, became such as to render unavoidable the conclusion of a peace, at Campo Formio, in September, 1797; which, while it extended the sway of Austria over Venice, stipulated the renunciation of her influence on the cabinets which form more particularly the theme of M. de Lucchesini's labors, — the lesser states of Germany.

This treaty, however, proved rather a truce than a peace: for, while the French government continued its usurpation, Austria, humbled, but not subdued, lent a willing ear to the offer of an English subsidy, and to the promise of co-operation from Russia. She therefore opened the campaign of 1799 with armies better appointed and commanded than those of France, and obtained for a time brilliant success; for, while the Archduke Charles chastised in Suabia the presumption of Jourdan, Suwaroff recovered in Italy the rich and extensive territory that had been over-run by Bonaparte. Such was the course of operations until the autumn of the year; when the reinforcements received by the French armies, and the appointment of abler chiefs, produced a considerable change, and altered the views of the fickle cabinet of the Emperor Paul. The recall of the Russian auxiliaries, and the direction of the French operations in the preceding campaign (that of 1800) by such leaders as Bonaparte and Moreau, reversed entirely the aspect of affairs, and taught the Austrians once more their inability to contend with their formidable rival. Hence the peace of Luneville, (February, 1801,) concluded under circumstances subversive of the influence of Austria over the lesser states of the empire, and calculated to transfer that influence to France, Prussia, and in some degree to Russia.

During 1802, Germany participated in the general tranquillity: but, on the rupture that ensued in 1803, one of the first measures of the French was the occupancy of Hanover by a military force. This event naturally tended to increase the influence of Bonaparte over the neighbouring states of the empire: but the grand accession to his power arose from the events of the campaign of 1805, in which his arms proved so decidedly superior to those of Austria and Russia. From that time forwards, the independence of the lesser states of Germany was, in a manner, lost; although the attachment of the subjects to their rulers was still such as to lead a calculating politician, like Talleyrand or his Imperial master, to win them by diplomatic art rather than military preponderance. Hence the formation of the well-known Confederation of the Rhine, the fundamental treaty for which was subscribed at Paris on the 12th of July, 1806.

It would be superfluous to enlarge on the history of this Confederation, throughout the seven years of its duration; or to develope the artifice of Bonaparte in appearing to respect the rights of its neighbours, while in fact he rendered their forces instrumental in rivetting their fetters. The first great event was the overthrow of the power of Prussia in 1806, which led to an extension of the Confederation as well by the incorporation of new states as by an increase of territory to the original members. In 1809, the renewed disasters of Austria left France without a rival in Germany, and obliged the members of the Confederation to follow implicitly her mandates. They were consequently forced in 1812 to send the flower of their armies to perish in the wilds of Russia; a disaster which revived all the national antipathy of the Germans to the French. The cup of their bitterness was indeed now full; and, in the advance of the allied armies in 1813, Bavaria, Wirtemberg, Baden, and in fact every member of the Rhenish Confederation, dissolved their connection with France, as soon as an assurance of the integrity of their territory was given to them by the allied powers.

Thus ended the labors of the politicians of St. Cloud with regard to the Confederation of the Rhine. — It remains that we add a few words on those of their historian. The Marquis Lucchesini took personally an active part in several of the transactions described; while, with respect to others, he derived his information from official sources. On the score of impartiality, he has considerable claims to attention: for, while he condemns the political motives that led to the Confederation on the part of the German Princes, he blames with equal freedom the opponents of Bonaparte in the cases, unfortunately too numerous, in which their public conduct was governed by selfish motives. On the style of the book we cannot bestow equal praise; since, though written in Italian, it partakes in a remarkable degree of the minuteness of the German school. The Marquis lays before his reader a variety of petty details, but seldom combines them into general views; and he seems in fact to have very little idea of the means of simplifying the relation of a series of minor circumstances, by classing them according to their tendency to a common result. To render the narrative interesting, therefore, the materials should have been committed to a practised writer, who would have consigned to an appendix the topics of subordinate interest, and have rendered the text a clear exposition of the leading events of the period. To attempt a change of this nature was, of course, beyond the province of a translator; and Mr. Dwyer aims in general at nothing beyond a literal version, except in the passages in which he has very properly retrenched a number of flowery expressions, such as the less chastened taste of the public on the Continent still tolerates, or rather admires. With the evidence of care thus afforded by the translator, we are surprized that he has not added either an index or a table of contents; an omission to be regretted in almost any work, but which in one of such multiform details is particularly inconvenient.

Art. XVII. *The Island,* or Christian and his Comrades. By the Right Honorable Lord Byron. 8vo. pp. 94. 5*s.* sewed. Hunt. 1823.

Art. XVIII. *Don Juan.* Cantos VI. VII. VIII. 8vo. 9*s.* 6*d.*, and 7*s.*; and 18mo. 1*s.* Hunt. 1823.

Youthful readers probably will require to be told that, by 'Christian and his Comrades,' Lord Byron means Mr. Fletcher Christian and the other mutineers of the Bounty armed ship; of whose seizure of that vessel in the South Seas, in the year 1789, we gave a detail from Lieutenant Bligh's Narrative in our second volume, N. S. p. 332. Mariner's account of the Tonga islands, also, will be found in our eighty-third volume, p. 337.; and Mr. Shillibeer's report of the visit of the Briton frigate to Pitcairn's island, where the descendants of those misguided men were found, was reviewed in vol. lxxxiv. p. 1. From the two former of these sources, Lord B. has composed the poem before us, which is partly historical and partly imaginary: but, since in a note, p. 64., his Lordship speaks of Toobonai, or Tcobouai, one of the Society isles, as 'the last where any distinct account is left of Christian and his comrades,' we doubt whether he has had *any* reference to the interesting and extraordinary account of Pitcairn's island; where the very peculiar state of society exemplified in the colony now existing there, derived from the Bounty's mutineers, might have furnished ample matter for his powers of description and of fancy.* Such an use of the subject had been already made by Miss Mitford, (of which perhaps Lord Byron was not aware,) whose poem we examined in vol. lxv, p. 249.: where the discovery of the settlement at Pitcairn's island was first mentioned by us, under circumstances of imperfect information as to the reality of so singular an event.

As the case stands, however, it will be supposed that Lord Byron has availed himself of the supposed attachment of one of the young seamen and one of the female islanders of Toobonai, to paint those scenes of tenderness and love in which he delights, excited and rendered particularly interesting by events and localities of no common occurrence; while, in depicting the fate of Christian, he represents that heroism of "bad eminence" which equally attracts him. The first canto describes the mutiny: the second brings the Bounty to Toobonai, where an attack is made on her crew, after a lapse of time, by an English ship sent in quest of them; and the third and fourth continue the battle, until the death of Christian and his desperate adherents, but more especially relate the escape of the favored one, called Torquil, whom his loving Neuha preserves by diving with him into a subterraneous cave, and thus eluding his pursuers. This cave, at the island of Hoonga, (which Lord B. has transferred to Toobonai, *licentiâ poeticâ,* for the purposes of his tale,) was described by Mariner, and his account is copied in our Review above quoted.

It is almost needless for us, now, to characterize Lord Byron's poetry, or to say that this production is gemmed with many beauties of fancy, and disfigured by many blemishes of style which might easily have been removed: but it will be expected that we should afford examples of each kind.

When the battle had partially terminated, Neuha seeks Torquil in the spot to which he and a few others had retreated.

> 'And who the first that, springing on the strand,
> Leaped like a Nereid from her shell to land,
> With dark but brilliant skin, and dewy eye
> Shining with love, and hope, and constancy?
> Neuha, the fond, the faithful, the adored,
> Her heart on Torquil's like a torrent poured;
> And smiled, and wept, and near, and nearer clasped,
> As if to be assured 'twas *him* she grasped;
> Shuddered to see his yet warm wound, and then,
> To find it trivial, smiled and wept again.
> She was a warrior's daughter, and could bear
> Such sights, and feel, and mourn, but not despair.

---

* Toobonai is in longitude 210° 37′ E., and latitude 23° 25′ S. Pitcairn's island is in longitude 133° 21′ W. and latitude 25° 2′ S.

Her lover lived, — nor foes nor fears could blight
That full-blown moment in its all delight:
Joy trickled in her tears, joy filled the sob
That rocked her heart till almost HEARD to throb;
And paradise was breathing in the sigh
Of nature's child in nature's ecstasy.'

She then carries him off in a canoe towards the cavern, an English boat chasing them:

'They rested on their paddles, and uprose
Neuha, and pointing to the approaching foes,
Cried, "Torquil, follow me, and fearless follow!"
Then plunged at once into the ocean's hollow.
There was no time to pause — the foes were near —
Chains in his eye and menace in his ear;
With vigour they pulled on, and as they came,
Hailed him to yield, and by his forfeit name.
Headlong he leapt — to him the swimmer's skill
Was native, and now all his hope from ill;
But how or where? He dived, and rose no more;
The boat's crew looked amazed o'er sea and shore,
There was no landing on that precipice,
Steep, harsh, and slippery as a berg of ice.
They watched awhile to see him float again,
But not a trace rebubbled from the main:
The wave rolled on, no ripple on its face,
Since their first plunge recalled a single trace;
The little whirl which eddied, and slight foam,
That whitened o'er what seemed their latest home,
White as a sepulchre above the pair
Who left no marble (mournful as an heir),
The quiet proa wavering o'er the tide
Was all that told of Torquil and his bride;
And but for this alone the whole might seem
The vanished phantom of a seaman's dream.
They paused and searched in vain, then pulled away,
Even superstition now forbade their stay.
Some said he had not plunged into the wave,
But vanished like a corpse-light from a grave;
Others, that something supernatural
Glared in his figure, more than mortal tall;
While all agreed, that in his cheek and eye
There was the dead hue of eternity.
Still as their oars receded from the crag,
Round every weed a moment would they lag,
Expectant of some token of their prey;
But no — he had melted from them like the spray.'

The following simile is beautiful:

'White as a white sail on a dusky sea,
When half the horizon's clouded and half free,

> Fluttering between the dun wave and the sky,
> Is hope's last gleam in man's extremity.
> Her anchor parts; but still her snowy sail
> Attracts our eye amidst the rudest gale:
> Though every wave she climbs divides us more,
> The heart still follows from the loneliest shore.'

Another simile, new and singular, thus occurs:

> 'At length Jack Skyscrape, a mercurial man,
> Who fluttered over all things *like a fan*,
> More brave than firm, and more disposed to dare
> And die at once than wrestle with despair,
> Exclaimed "G—d damn!" Those syllables intense, —
> Nucleus of England's native eloquence,' &c.

Of the little Nautilus, it is said:

> 'He, when the lightning-winged tornados sweep
> The surge, is safe — his port is in the deep. —
> And triumphs o'er the armadas of mankind,
> Which shake the world, yet crumble in the wind.'

Among the prosaic and bad lines, these may be mentioned:

> 'Behind, the South Sea's many an islet shore,' P. 1.
>
> 'The sound of mats *are* heard along our track.' P. 20.
>
> 'Ah, pause! nor yet *put out the social smile.*' P. 21.
>
> 'Had Cæsar known but Cleopatra's kiss,
> Rome had been free, the world had not been *his*.' P. 34.
>
> —— 'His pistols were
> Linked to his belt, a matrimonial pair —
> (Let not this metaphor appear a scoff,
> Tho' one missed fire, the other would *go off*).' P. 43.
>
> —— '"No, but *still*
> She bore down on us, till the wind grew *still*.'" P. 44.
>
> '"We will die at our quarters, like true men."' *Ib.*
>
> '"Right," quoth Ben, "that will do for the marines."' P. 45.

At p. 22. Lord Byron talks of the '*sordor* of civilization;' and in a note to p. 66. he says, '*there are eight years* since I read the book."

'Don Juan' has been sufficiently pourtrayed to our readers, and perhaps they and certainly we did not expect to see him again. In vol. lxxxix. p. 309. and vol. xcv. p. 418., we took a view of the first five cantos; the last of which deposited him as a slave in the possession of the Sultana at Constantinople. Thus circumstanced, the sixth resumes his history, to relate his adventures in the harem, disguised as a female; and the meaning of which is also somewhat *disguised*, we apprehend, by the noble bard in his figurative style of relating them: but, if he has had the grace to throw even a thin veil over any improprieties, we will not remove the covering. — The Sultana's *jealousy* being roused, she sends away Juan and one of the ladies in a rather mysterious but threatening manner; and in the seventh and eighth cantos we find him, very unaccountably, accompanied by an Englishman and two Turkish ladies, joining the Russian army at the attack of Ismael by Suwarrow.

Here the employment of Don Juan is certainly changed, from making love to making war; and, as the power of the poet is unquestioned and unlimited, the Don is as great and as successful in the one art as in the other. The assault and final capture of the town are described at great length and with much animation, but interrupted by digressions, and altogether extended too far. The subject has no novelty, and no charm where any feeling exists. It is therefore a little relief to find Don Juan partially stopped in his career, to discharge one isolated office of humanity by preserving the life of a female child, during the massacre of the Turkish citizens and soldiers: an incident which Lord Byron says is founded on such a fact having occurred to the late Duke de Richelieu, when a young volunteer in the Russian service. We quote a few stanzas.

‘ The city's taken, but not rendered! — No!
There's not a Moslem that hath yielded sword:
The blood may gush out, as the Danube's flow
Rolls by the city-wall; but deed nor word
Acknowledge aught of dread of death or foe:
In vain the yell of victory is roared
By the advancing Muscovite — the groan
Of the last foe is echoed by his own.
The bayonet pierces and the sabre cleaves,
And human lives are lavished every where,
As the year closing whirls the scarlet leaves
When the stript forest bows to the bleak air,
And groans; and thus the peopled city grieves,
Shorn of its best and loveliest, and left bare;
But still it falls with vast and awful splinters,
As oaks blown down with all their thousand winters. —
Upon a taken bastion, where there lay
Thousands of slaughtered men, a yet warm groupe
Of murdered women, who had found their way
To this vain refuge, made the good heart droop
And shudder; — while, as beautiful as May,
A female child of ten years tried to stoop
And hide her little palpitating breast
Amid the bodies lulled in bloody rest.

'Two villanous Cossacques pursued the child
With flashing eyes and weapons: matched with them,
The rudest brute that roams Siberia's wild
Has feelings pure and polished as a gem, —
The bear is civilized, the wolf is mild:
And whom for this at last must we condemn?
Their natures? or their sovereigns, who employ
All arts to teach their subjects to destroy?

'Their sabres glittered o'er her little head,
Whence her fair hair rose twining with affright,
Her hidden face was plunged amid the dead:
When Juan caught a glimpse of the sad sight,
I shall not say exactly what he *said*,
Because it might not solace "ears polite;"
But what he *did* was to lay on their backs,
The readiest way of reasoning with Cossacques.

'One's hip he slashed, and split the other's shoulder,
And drove them with their brutal yells to seek
If there might be chirurgeons who could solder
The wounds they richly merited, and shriek
Their baffled rage and pain; while waxing colder
As he turn'd o'er each pale and gory cheek,
Don Juan raised his little captive from
The heap a moment more had made her tomb.

'And she was chill as they, and on her face
A slender streak of blood announced how near
Her fate had been to that of all her race;
For the same blow which laid her mother here
Had scarred her brow, and left its crimson trace
As the last link with all she had held dear;
But else unhurt, she opened her large eyes,
And gazed on Juan with a wild surprize.'

The sequel states that he was able to preserve her, and vowed to be her protector; an engagement which he honorably kept. We suppose, therefore, that this little fair unknown is destined to play some other part in this drama; the continuation of which seems to be promised, without specific limit or object, and without much regard to that censure of the kind of coloring, expression, hint, and allusion, in which the author indulges, that has been bestowed on this poem by the public. We are sorry to add that the present cantos are not invulnerable to such accusations.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR JULY, 1823.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 19. *The Heir of Foiz;* a Dramatic Poem, in Two Acts. The False One, and other Poems. With Notes, illustrative and explanatory. By the Rev. C. Swan, late of Catharine-Hall, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 281. 12*s.* Boards. Chapple.

This production is of a very "mingled yarn" indeed; abounding in all the poetical good and evil which is, we think, the leading characteristic of the first not less than of the second rate poets of our age. Their very best qualities are shaded by great defects; and much of their success seems to be attained only by grasping at thoughts "beyond the reaches of their souls," by launching "into the mighty void" of all that is extravagant, obscure, and horrible. It is to this love of the sublime, bordering on the ridiculous, that we owe most of the poetical characters and descriptions contained in our modern dramas and epics; in which the authors desert the paths of real nature, simplicity, and true taste, in chase of the chimeras of the imagination, and hoping to attain something which they esteem novel and great.

Such is the character of Mr. Swan's poetry, as far as it is here manifested in 'The Heir of Foiz,' 'The False One,' 'Moonlight,' and other still more objectionable minor pieces. Though the whole of them discover marks of genius, reminding us frequently of Mr. Shelley, yet the wild and extravagant manner in which it is misapplied, — the hyperbole, the flights, and the conceits of which it is too frequently guilty, — and the revolting nature even of its most powerful and poetical passages, lead us rather to regret than to admire the gift of it. We the more readily and strongly denounce this misapplication of talents, in the present instance, because it appears to us that, with a little regular training and discipline, the muse of Mr. S. might be rendered capable of better efforts. We certainly have not felt wholly uninterested in the contents of the volume; which includes lines and passages that could spring only from the "*mens divinior,*" with a glow of sentiment and expression that is surpassed only by our mightier "masters of the lyre." Yet the whole is so rudely arranged, so inartificially developed, and betrays so much negligence, obscurity, and straining after effect, that the author's poetry requires more than all its redeeming merit to recommend itself to our taste.

The plot of 'The Heir of Foiz' is too evidently similar to the underplot of the bastard Edmund against his brother Edgar in the play of "Lear;" and we have much gratuitous folly and wickedness of character, while an air of extravagance and rhodomontade is thrown over the whole. A professed imitator of our early tragedians, the author succeeds chiefly in adopting the epithets and phraseology, without displaying the spirit and meaning of those fathers of our dramatic art. Like Macbeth's witches, he "keeps the word of promise to the ear, but breaks it to the hope;" — he gives us the outward form, but not the vivifying heart and language of our old poetry. We meet in both with such words as "excellent wench," "beshrew me," "what braveries," "thoughts of suspect," and a variety of antique turns and phrases, which prove the weakness of attempting to revive the style and character of a noble age that is departed for ever. We enter our protest, therefore, against the opinion of Mr. Swan, as it is thus somewhat extravagantly stated in his preface:

'The design, (I hope a laudable one,) with which I entered on the present "sketch," was an attempt to follow in the footsteps of our elder dramatists. The depths of that darkness which for a length of time overwhelmed the brilliant poetry of a past day, are happily disclosed in this: and unlike the fabled lamp which burning splendidly amid sepulchral glooms became extinguished on the admittance of light and air — it shines brighter for the test.'

We wish that this were true: but the fire which animated their page is wholly quenched, or reaches us only through their writings: our imitations are more or less caricatures; and we can no more recall the age and spirit than we can re-animate the real persons of our elder dramatists. It is idle to be told, then, that an author 'desires not to give an appearance of antiquity to his labors, but to catch the inspiration of the "olden times," — to pass into circulation the pure and sterling coin, which has been so long, and so culpably neglected.' (Preface, p. xviii.)

Though on a mistaken plan, however, this dramatic sketch is executed in many points with much ability: the language is bold and poetic; the thoughts are often strong and elevated; and several fine and touching passages occur: yet, taken as a whole, it is wanting in all the higher requisites of the drama. The plot is too palpable and inartificial; the traitor's character is too naked and unadorned, too gratuitous in its villainy; and there is a want of consistency and judgment in the action, as well as in the distribution of the minor parts.

The poem intitled 'The False One' discovers poetical imagination and real power, but is extravagant in its subject and its details; while its merits consist chiefly of an animated and forcible description of female infidelity, treachery, assassination, and atrocity, expiating a series of crimes at the funereal stake. Such a story, however well told, is as little deserving of our attention as are the minor poems which follow.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 20. *The Physician's Guide*, being a popular Dissertation on Fevers, Inflammations, and all Diseases connected with them; comprizing Observations on the Use and Abuse of Blood-letting, Mercury, Cathartics, Stimulants, Diet, &c. &c. &c. By Adam Dods, M.D. Worcester. 8vo. pp. 322. 10*s.* 6*d.* Boards. Longman and Co.

Although this volume embraces a very large portion of the department of the physician, and contains the discussion of many difficult and disputed points in medicine, it is yet intended as much for general perusal as for professional readers. Dr. Dods appears, indeed, to have designed it rather as a guide to the public in forming their estimate of a physician, than as a directory to the physician himself. Many remarks also are introduced, pointing out the absurdity of permitting a young graduate, fresh from his studies, to control the medical procedure of an experienced general practitioner. In defence of such a plan, we have nothing to offer: but we consider the separation of the healing art, into the two departments of physic and surgery, as highly conducive to the dignity of the profession and the advancement of medical knowlege. Both physician and surgeon, however, ought to be men of liberal attainments; and each should be well acquainted not only with his own department, but with that also of his professional brother.

We are fully aware of the great advantage possessed by the physician, who has spent the earlier period of his career in the more fatiguing occupations of general practice, either in private life or in the service of his country, over the mere *ab initio* physician, who never took the lancet in his hand, nor ever looked at disease but in order to write a prescription for it. Still, when the general practitioner has once changed his ground, and declared himself a physician, he ought to obey rigidly the laws of the class into which he has thus entered. Under these impressions, we cannot approve the conduct of Dr. Dods, in professing to be a physician while he continued to perform phlebotomy. Perhaps, however, he will excuse himself on the plea of his high admiration of blood-letting, of which he speaks with almost as much enthusiasm as Mr. Welsh; (see Monthly Review, vol. xcv.) although obviously with less practical experience of its efficacy, at least in fever. The main object, indeed, of the volume before us is to point out the great value of this practice in fever; and to endeavour to overcome the prejudices against its adoption, which are still deeply rooted in the public mind. The efficacy of blood-letting in several other complaints is also considered by Dr. Dods, and placed by him in a sufficiently convincing point of view.

The administration of mercurials and cathartics, both in fever and in chronic diseases, is discussed at some length; and the author has expressed in strong terms his dissent from the fashionable opinions of the day, which attach so much importance to the liver. Although we cannot agree with him in the assertion that the bile is a mere excrementitious fluid, ministering in no manner to the digestive functions, we do think that the attention of medical men has been too much fixed on this important *viscus*, and consequently withdrawn from the more immediate organs of digestion, viz. the stomach, and intestines. — The hints which Dr. D. has thrown out respecting the office of the *colon*, in yielding unexcrementitious fluid, and thus contributing to the purification of the blood, appear to us deserving of notice. Yet his opinions on this subject seem rather crude, as the following extract will sufficiently shew:

'If we examine the contents of the colon, we shall find them differing in colour as well as in odour, *to* those of the duodenum. The former is likewise distended more or less with hydrogen gas, at the same time that *that* in the latter is carbonic acid gas. We shall likewise find *that* if the internal surface of the colon be stimulated by an injection, *that* a considerable thick secretion of a very disagreeable odour, will take place from it. It will also be found that after the stomach and duodenum have been emptied by aperient medicines, or that the patient has fasted two or three days, fæces in substance are evacuated in considerable quantity. It will therefore be obvious from these circumstances that the colon executes an office different *to* that of the duodenum. It therefore seems evident, that the fæces are performed in the colon, and that the greatest portion of that which may be evacuated is a secretion from its internal surface. Chylification, for the nourishment of the body, takes place in the duodenum, and fæcification in the colon, by which impurities or the old particles of the body are divided from the blood; from this we may conclude, as well as from its size and length, that the function of the colon in the animal economy is most important, and from torpor or sluggishness of this viscus more serious diseases arise than from a disordered state of the digestive viscera. Morbid irritation, or organic disease in it, from the extent of its occupation in the abdomen, is frequently referred to the liver, the stomach, or the kidneys, as it passes from under the right kidney by the gall-bladder, near the great convexity of the stomach under the spleen, it then runs down on the fore side of the left kidney, and turns towards the back-bone, where it ends in a double encurvature.'

The brain and nerves are objects of primary importance with Dr. D.; and on them he conceives that the first impression is made in fevers, and in all inflammations. We think that he is not correct, however, in believing that the truth of this opinion disproves the existence of debility of the capillaries of an inflamed part; and we conceive that such an hypothesis is rather supported than weakened by his doctrine: for, if the nervous energy of a part be diminished, the capillary vessels are very likely to be affected with debility, and to dilate in consequence.

We are reluctantly obliged to add that this work has been composed with little regard to order or arrangement; and none of the subjects introduced are at once discussed to the full extent of the author's space and abilities, but are again and again brought forwards, and not without the frequent repetition of the same ideas. The language also is often incorrect; and terms are occasionally employed which are either not to be found in the writings of our best authors, or are altogether foreign to the English tongue. Of this description are the word *auxiliation*, and the newly coined verb *to recourse*.

Having thus performed our duty in adverting to the errors of Dr. Dods's work, we are equally required to state that we consider it as creditable to his judgment as a practitioner, notwithstanding the appearance of a want of professional liberality which it sometimes betrays. We have no doubt that it may be perused with advantage by the medical reader; although we do not deem it likely, from its style and matter, to obtain that general popularity which its author perhaps anticipated.

HISTORY.

Art. 21. *History of Brazil.* By Robert Southey. Part the Third. 4to. pp. 950. 3*l.* 3*s.* Boards. Longman and Co.

This bulky history has been published at intervals considerably distant from each other, and we made an ample report of the preceding portions of it in vols. lix. and lxxxvii. It is consequently unnecessary to dilate on the conclusion of Mr. S.'s labors; particularly as the subject of Brazil is so much less interesting to our countrymen than the late war in Spain, on which (see our last Number) Mr. S. is at present engaged. He begins the volume before us by acknowlegements to the different friends to whom he has been indebted for the loan of manuscripts and scarce books: among whom he assigns the foremost place to his relation, Mr. Hill of Lisbon. This gentleman's collection of documents respecting Portugal are described, preface, p. ix., as of a magnitude calculated to promise an ample harvest of research; and to induce Mr. S. to revert to Portuguese history, as soon as he shall have completed his relation of the campaigns of the Duke of Wellington.

The portion of Brazilian history embraced by the present volume is somewhat more than a century, the narrative beginning in 1686 and continuing down to 1807. The relation of events occupies about three-fourths of the volume, and the remainder contains a description of the present condition of Brazil, of the manners of the Indians, and of the state of society among the Creoles or Brazilians of European descent. Of the backwardness of that country it is difficult to convey any adequate idea to an English reader: but some notion of it may be formed from the following paragraph, (extracted from p. 828.) which is descriptive of the state of society in the province or captaincy of Minas Geraes, the principal seat of mining: an occupation which, as far as it regards the undertakers, is in general unfavorable to habits of steady industry.

‘ It is affirmed, that no White man, even of the lowest order, in that captaincy, has ever been known to take an agricultural instrument in his hand for the purpose of using it! The state of society indeed is deplorably bad; and how should it be otherwise where there is nothing to elevate the character, as in feudal times; nothing to refine it, as in the enlightened parts of Europe; nothing even to strengthen it, as among the men, by whom these very regions were explored and won? Books were almost unknown; and industry of any kind was considered derogatory. There were very few persons of wealth in the captaincy; scarcely half-a-dozen families, who possessed a capital of 20,000*l.* or 300 slaves. The persons who fill the public offices, and the commercial men, are called the " Nobles of the Mines:" the former live wholly upon their salaries. They are described as holding every kind of study in abhorrence; passing their hours at the windows, wrapt up in loose morning robes, and devoting the least possible time to business; so that their year's work is averaged at thirty days' employment, of six hours each. This way of life leaves ample leisure for debauchery and petty intrigues, to which they are miserably addicted. Such are the White inhabitants of the towns, in the dark colours with which they have been painted. The miners and agriculturists of the same complexion are free from those vices, which grow like weeds in the hot-bed of crowded society; but of those which spring up upon the dunghill and the waste they had a full crop. The business of the farm or the mine is left wholly to slaves and factors: every thing therefore was wretchedly conducted; and most of them obtained from their property nothing beyond a bare subsistence. The perpetual lottery in which the miners are engaged renders them fickle of purpose; and the habit of always deceiving themselves with vain hopes, makes them so little scrupulous at disappointing others, that the word of a miner is regarded as of no value, either by himself or by any one else. The people of colour are generally poor: he who has half-a-dozen slaves, scarcely raises produce enough for the support of his family, though the Negroes are half starved. They do not even cultivate the commonest culinary plants. A traveller must carry provisions, for he will not be able to purchase them as he proceeds: if he call at a house in the country with the hope of buying food, he may very probably be answered by a petition from the owner to give him a little mandioc meal "for the love of God." A frightful character is given of the immorality of the Mulatto class.'

We shall not attempt to go farther into detail, or occupy the attention of our readers with the events of Brazilian history, obscure as are the names and unconnected as are the circumstances with those which relate to the commonwealth of Europe: but we shall be satisfied with repeating that, amid all the evidence of talent and diligence given by Mr. S., the plan and composition of the present volume are liable to the somewhat serious objections which we charged on its predecessors: for, like them, it consists of a succession of details seldom brought together by connecting or comprehensive views. The author seems aware, also, (p. 879.) that his work can hardly be popular, on account of the limited interest of the subject; to which he might have added a cause more evident perhaps to other eyes than his own; viz. the *moles libri.*

Art. 22. *Lectures on the Philosophy of Modern History*, delivered in the University of Dublin. By George Miller, D.D. M.R.I.A. Rector of Derryvoylan, Master of the Royal School of Armagh, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin, and Lecturer on Modern History. Vols. III. and IV. 8vo. pp. 1121. 1*l.* 4*s.* Boards. Murray.

We took occasion to notice at some length the first and second volumes of Dr. Miller's Lectures, in our Number for June, 1817. In the present volumes, Dr. M. analyzes a farther period of history; beginning with the romantic æra of the Crusades, and proceeding to give his readers successively the history of France, England, Italy, Germany, Spain, and the rest of Europe, during the two centuries that elapsed between the years 1300 and 1500: allotting separate chapters to the history of trade and the history of literature, throughout the whole of the Gothic ages. If it be asked what is the general scope of his labors, — the meaning of the term "Philosophy of History," — it may be answered, to represent the moral agency of man as illustrative of the existence, wisdom, power, and goodness of God; in the same manner as Dr. Paley reasoned on the organization of the animal and vegetable kingdoms. 'My doctrine,' he says, 'is that the Great Creator, in arranging this earth for the reception of its inhabitants, has originally so distributed its continents, its seas, its islands, its mountains, its rivers, its various soils and its climates, as they might best dispose the characters and the political circumstances of its various nations, to constitute one collective system of human society fitted to work out its own gradual amelioration. That in his subsequent superintendence, foreseeing all the future actions even of his free creatures, he sends into the world agents variously qualified, so that all their actions, though not restrained by any control, may, notwithstanding, be combined, with the most perfect harmony, in the production of such a result, as should be agreeable to the wisdom and the beneficence of his own nature. This doctrine is not limited to the public fortunes of nations, for the actions of men, even of those of the meanest order, are supposed to have been foreseen, and to be actually combined in the general plan of Providence. Neither, on the other hand, does it suppose the Almighty to interfere frequently for the purpose of rectifying his own work by influencing the wills of his creatures, for it considers all the actions of men without exception as free, and represents the government of God as exercised by his foreknowledge, introducing agents suitable to the several occasions of society.'

Such is the object of Dr. M.; and a nobler purpose it would be difficult to conceive: — but with regard to the mode of carrying his views into effect, we must continue to pass nearly the same animadversion which was excited by our perusal of his first and second volumes. The period of history now described is indeed more interesting, and the author has in some measure corrected his tendency to fanciful views; or to the habit of tracing a connection of cause and effect, in cases that are beyond the penetration either of himself or of any historical investigator. Still he is apt to trespass in supposing that he has made discoveries of a nature to confirm new views of history; and his better plan would have been to exhibit ascertained facts in clear succession, adding any thing in the shape of inference or conclusion with a cautious hand. Such a course we recommended long since to the philanthropist (Mr. Owen) whose visions are at present directed towards Ireland; and who would have had a much stronger claim on general attention, if he had published merely a journal of his mode of regulating his manufacturing colony at New Lanerk, and of the *beneficial consequences* resulting from his discipline.

No

We cannot take leave of Dr. M. without adding, that in these, as in his former volumes, he discovers great extent of reading, and ease in historical illustration.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 23. *An Essay on the Political Economy of Nations;* or, a View of the Intercourse of Countries as affecting their Wealth. 8vo. pp. 288. Longman.

This is a work of considerable labor and research; indicative not only of extensive reading but of no slight power of abstraction on the part of the author. His fault, like that of so many writers on political economy, consists in a deficiency of references to practical results, and in a general scantiness of statistical information. "*Le public,*" says a French writer, "*est avide de plaisir;*" and whoever, in a book of science, fails to gratify this inclination, must expect but a limited number of readers. For this *memento* to abstruse reasoners, we have no less a sanction than that of Mr. Hume; who, as we learn from his printed correspondence, deemed it incumbent on him to express an opinion to that effect to his friend Dr. Smith, shortly before the publication of his Essay on the Wealth of Nations.

The volume before us consists of three parts; treating of the principles of production; next, of those of commercial intercourse; and, lastly, exhibiting a few notices of the practical exemplification of such intercourse. The first part is essentially abstract, and may be considered as confirming our apprehensions of dryness and unpopularity, even in passages in which (as in pp. 8. and 9.) the author, in stating his propositions, has had the benefit of the tabular form. In the second division, on commercial intercourse, the author's remarks possess somewhat more of a practical character; but still it consists, for the far greater part, of abstract disquisition; and the only portion of the book that is likely to be read with pleasure is the third and last, containing historical notices, and some examples of the actual application of the writer's general principles. He has also taken the precaution of adding an index, which, brief as it is, has a tendency to lessen the obscurity and intricacy of the text. All this, however, will form but a feeble counterpoise to the drawbacks inherent in the subject; and we think it is in some measure incumbent on us to prepare him to seek consolation for indifference on the part of the public, in that conviction of his ability which can hardly fail to be entertained by the intelligent few, who are capable of appreciating information even in an uninviting garb.

EDUCATION.

Art. 24. *A History of England,* from the first Invasion by the Romans to the End of the Reign of George III.; with Conversations at the End of each Chapter. For the Use of Young Persons. (By Mrs. Markham.) 12mo. 2 Vols. 16s. Boards. Hurst and Co. 1823.

Ladies, as Lord Byron says of the angels, are usually Tories; and so is the fair writer of this epitome of English history, which is well adapted for educational purposes in families that partake of similar sentiments. The volumes are divided into forty-three lessons, the reading of which aloud would occupy as many half-hours; and at the close of each lecture a dialogue ensues, in which the mother, or preceptress, who is supposed to have read the preceding chapter, answers all the little questions of the pupils about the narrative which they have heard. Thus, without the formality of notes, every useful explanation which the text may require is naturally and agreeably insinuated; and many anecdotes, illustrations, and traits of manners, the previous introduction of which would have seemed like an interruption, are separately narrated. Engravings, which depict in chronological order the various changes of national costume, are added to the volumes.

The history begins at the invasion of England by Julius Cæsar, and is continued to the end of the last reign. The war of the French Revolution, so pernicious to the liberties and happiness of Europe, is recorded with unhallowed panegyric; and as if Mr. Burke and Mr. Pitt, by promoting it, had deserved well of the people of England.

As to the style of this book, it is simple and unaffected; the selection of matter is judicious, and well proportioned; and, though few authorities are quoted, it is evident that many have been consulted. The form of the work also has its merit; the alternations of lecture and dialogue producing an enlivening effect.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 25. *The Rudiments of Practical Perspective,* in which the Representation of Objects is described by Two easy Methods; one depending on the Plan of the Object, the other on its Dimensions and Positions; each Method being entirely free from the usual Complication of Lines, and from the Difficulties arising from remote vanishing Points. By Peter Nicholson, Author of the Carpenter's Guide, and various Mathematical Works. Illustrated by 38 Plates. 8vo. 14*s.* Boards. Taylor. 1822.

Every person who is connected with the art of design, whether in the higher branches of painting or in the simple representation of architectural constructions or mechanical combinations, ought to be fully aware of the great importance of perspective; and yet it happens that many excellent artists, in other respects, are almost wholly ignorant of the true principles of this fundamental science. The consequence frequently is a woeful distortion of some very principal figures. Cresswell, in the preface to his treatise on perspective, very properly observes: "There is one class of literary characters, the authors of books of travels, made expensive by their engravings, of whom the public have a right to expect this attainment. To them indeed the want of it is more disgraceful, than the possession would have been creditable. For it has been justly remarked that there is the same absurdity in pretending to delineate without a knowlege of perspective, as to write an epic poem without being acquainted with the rules of orthography and grammar."

Much of this ignorance of the principles of perspective, among our artists and draughtsmen, proceeds from a mistaken idea that they cannot be practised without a perfect knowlege of certain branches of mathematics; which seems to them to *throw the desired object at so great a distance*, that the attainment of it is given up as hopeless. It is true that, in order to comprehend entirely the full force and truth of the several practical rules, a student ought at least to have acquired a thorough knowlege of the Elements of Euclid, (particularly of the eleventh book,) together with some other elementary mathematical science: but still these conditions are by no means necessary, or indispensable for the mere practice of the rules. As in navigation a sailor can work a lunar or double altitude observation, by formulæ delivered to him, without being able to demonstrate the principles of his operation, so a painter or draughtsman may follow all the principles of perspective in his design, without having a sufficient knowlege of the elements of geometry to demonstrate their accuracy and infallibility.

In saying this, we are by no means desirous to be understood as treating lightly that degree of mathematical knowlege which would enable a student to judge for himself; all that we wish to convey is that, where that previous knowlege does not exist, and cannot be obtained, still the artist may at least acquire such a knowlege of practical perspcetive, as will prevent him from committing the errors so ludicrously caricatured by Hogarth in his picture of False Perspective, appropriately introduced as a frontispiece to the quarto edition of Brook Taylor's treatise.

The present work may perhaps be more advantageously consulted by students of the class to which we have referred than by any others; the object of the author being to furnish practical rules, many of which are extremely ingenious and concise, and the demonstrations of which are completely within the reach of the pupil who has acquired the degree of elementary knowlege of geometry already mentioned. To others the process is rendered equally clear: but the truth and accuracy of the principles must by them, of course, be taken on trust.

As different subjects are required to be represented, different views of perspective naturally offer themselves to the eye of the experienced artist; and he will adopt the one or the other as it is best suited to the particular case in question. It is therefore desirable that a student should be furnished with rules depending on different original considerations of the principles of perspective representation, in order that he may select in all cases that which is best suited to his object. For this purpose, Mr. Nicholson (whose mathematical knowlege, and long experience as a tutor and a practical draughtsman, have led him to contemplate the science in every possible point of view,) has in the present treatise divided his subject into three distinct beads, or principles.

'*The first* treats of the representation of objects by means of their vanishing and intersecting points only, and by their geometrical description, according to their real size and position, which are given; this mode, although rather tedious and inconvenient in practice, is the best adapted for comprehending the subject in the most satisfactory manner, as the original plane, the plane of the picture, and the vanishing plane, are exhibited in the connected order in which they may be folded up in their real positions, and thus the principle on which they are founded will be always obvious. This method is therefore necessary, and is introductory to the others.

'*The second method* is that in which the vanishing points of all the original lines of the object are used, but the definite lengths are terminated by means of a directing point; a director, perpendicular to the directing line, from the geometrical description of the object being given in position and magnitude. This is a very convenient way in drawing complex objects, as it obviates the necessity of having the plan geometrically described on the same piece of paper, which commonly requires more space than one paper will furnish; it also brings the constructive terminating lines into a regularly converging order, and thus the perplexity arising from a multiplicity of lines crossing each other in different directions is avoided.

'*The third method* of representing objects in perspective, is by vanishing points, having the representation of the point and the linear dimensions of the objects given. This way is indispensable in the representation of solids, particularly in bodies of complex form, which being combined with the second method, affords all the facility that can be desired in the representation of architectural subjects.

'Solids are here represented in two ways. The first consists in combining the second and third methods; and the second, in the application of the third method only to the different planes of the faces of the solid, so that the student may have the advantage of always using the most facile method, or that which is the most conveniently adapted to his purpose.'

The nature of this work, which has constant references to the very neat copper-plates, containing nearly one hundred and fifty different illustrative figures, prevents the possibility of entering more particularly than we have done into the nature of its contents: but we must state that it is, in our opinion, very creditable to the taste and judgment of the author, and a valuable addition to our information on this pleasing and interesting science.

The *Centro-linead*, described in the latter chapters for drawing lines to a distant vanishing point, is an ingenious and useful instrument.

Art. 26. *Sciography; or*, Examples of Shadows, and Rules for their Projection: intended for the Use of Architectural

Draughtsmen. By Joseph Gwilt, Architect, Lithographed on Eighteen Plates. 8vo. 9*s.* Boards. Taylor. 1822.

The proper projection of shadows in architectural designs is, next to the perspective representation of the subject, one of the most important parts of the execution, and highly deserving of the attention of the artist. To an eye accustomed to the accurate delineation of shadows, any error or impropriety in this respect is little less painful than an inaccuracy in the perspective itself; and yet how frequently, in our annual Exhibitions, do we perceive the most scrupulous exactness observed in the latter, while the shadows are thrown in as if the draughtsman had begun his design in the morning and finished it in the evening, so that he had caught the shadows under all the varying altitudes and azimuths of the great luminary throughout the day!

While the pretensions of the author of the work before us are modest and unassuming, his execution is accurate and perspicuous. The treatise is obviously founded on study and reflection, and we are persuaded that it will be highly useful to that class of persons for whom it is intended. — Mr. Gwilt remarks:

'No novelty, no new theory is professed to be given. I have been contented with smoothing a path already cleared of its obstructions and difficulties by the French writers. The only merit to which I pretend to lay claim is, that of having simplified the mode in which I presume to think I have arrived at the desired end.

'My first intention was to have published a mere translation of the work of Stanislas l'Eveillé (*Études d'Ombres*), and I had actually translated it, and redrawn all its examples with that view; but considerable reflection, and a more matured view of the subject, have led me to believe that it would have been much too complex to have been generally useful, besides the circumstance of many important studies being wholly omitted in that work. To it, nevertheless, as well as to that of La Vallée, I feel bound to confess myself under the greatest obligations. The method I have adopted is however much more simple than that used by either of those writers, whose diagrams are mostly so loaded with operative lines as to confuse and distract the mind of the student.

'Brevity is desirable in a work of this nature; the demonstrations are therefore omitted; but this omission cannot be felt by the mathematician, to whom they will be sufficiently obvious. The student in architecture, who has not made some advances on a claim to that title, had better retrace his steps before proceeding. He is a sorry architect who is a bad mathematician.'

The several studies are neatly exhibited on the plates, and the letter-press occupies only forty-three pages: brevity, therefore, has unquestionably been consulted; and we are only afraid that the author has been too concise.

Art. 27. *Remarks on the Opinions of Philosophers concerning the true Cause of the Rising of the Tides.* By Captain Forman, Royal Navy. 8vo. 2*s.* Robinson. 1822.

It is obvious, from the general nature of the observations contained in this pamphlet, that Captain Forman has felt himself much hurt at the reception which his new Theory of the Tides has experienced from philosophers; and we are really sorry, both on his own account and that of the honorable profession to which he belongs, that he has attempted the discussion of this difficult question; which he really does not properly understand; and which requires a greater portion of mathematical knowlege than he appears to possess.

Captain F. calls on Reviewers not to *ridicule* but to *refute* his arguments, and is rather displeased at one or two observations which we made in examining his former pamphlet: but he does not seem to consider that it would take much more room than a Review can properly appropriate to such a subject, to enter into a full developement of the principles on which the Newtonian theory of the tides is founded; and which, after all, would only be to employ again arguments that have been a hundred times repeated in our books of philosophy. Consequently, if these are not sufficient to convince him, all that we can say will be equally useless. We can do no more than shew that he altogether misunderstands what has been advanced on this subject, and others of a similar nature; and that he denies facts which are as demonstrable as any proposition in Euclid's Elements of Geometry.

Let us take one instance. Captain Forman says:

'Kepler's celebrated law that the planets, in revolving round the sun, describe equal areas in equal times, is a direct contradiction of Sir Isaac Newton's law that the power of gravity decreases as the square of the distance increases; and yet both these hypotheses are admitted to be true by the same philosophers. Kepler's law is evidently founded upon the principle, that the power of gravity decreases in arithmetical proportion with the increase of the distance; because, at twice the distance, a planet must move with half the velocity, in order that the radius vector may pass over an equal space in the same time; while, if the power of gravity decreased as the square of the distance increased, it could only move with the fourth part of the velocity, in order to bear the same proportion to the diminished power of gravity, and consequently could only describe half the area in the same time that it would do if it was twice as near.'

It will, perhaps, be useless for us to tell the author that, instead of these two laws contradicting, they beautifully confirm and are dependent on each other; and that this dependence is as susceptible of proof as the 47th proposition in the first book of Euclid. He might, in fact, just as well have denied that the sum of the squares on the two sides of a right-angled triangle are *not* equal to the square on the hypothenuse, as deny this relation of the two laws in question. He ought to have known that the accordance of these two facts is not, as he supposes, a mere matter of hypothesis or tacit agreement, but a demonstrable fact; and which requires but a very little elementary knowlege to understand. The same remark applies to all the writer's objections to the laws of Kepler.

Captain Forman is not less mistaken in supposing that philosophers admit, or advance, that the attraction of the moon on the earth is greater than that of the sun, because it is found that the latter body has the smaller effect on the tides: — it is not because the attraction is less, but because the difference between the attraction at the centre and at the surface is less, that the action of the sun is inferior to the action of the moon. He remarks:

'It is laid down by them as an axiom in philosophy, that "the power of gravity decreases as the square of the distance increases;" and yet, if this rule had been true, the power of the sun's attraction, (at the earth's surface,) instead of being less than that of the moon, which it evidently is, would have been fifty times as much; so that we have here another instance of a *principle* in philosophy being in direct opposition to a positive fact.

'It is acknowleged by philosophers, that the power of the sun's attraction (at the earth's surface) is less than the moon's; and it evidently is so, because we never can discover that the sun has any influence over the tides, unless it be when it is either in conjunction with, or in opposition to, the moon; and even at these times, as the moon is nearer the earth, it is a great deal more likely that the increase in the height of the tides is occasioned by the increased power of the moon's attraction, than that the sun should be able to produce a sensible effect upon the tides at one time, when it does not at any other. Taking the earth's centre, in round numbers, to be 4000 miles from the surface of the waters, it will be sixty times nearer to it than the moon is, and about 24,000 times nearer than the sun; and the power of the sun's attraction is estimated by philosophers to be 200,000 times greater than the earth's, while the moon's power of attraction is supposed to be forty times less. By the above rule, then, 24,000 multiplied by itself, and divided by 200,000, will give the proportion which the sun's power of attraction (at the earth's surface) bears to that of the earth; and sixty multiplied by itself, and again multiplied by forty, will give the proportional power of the moon's attraction; and as this rule will make the moon's power of attraction fifty times less than the sun's, which is evidently the reverse of the truth, it follows of course that philosophers must be mistaken in supposing such a principle to be true.'

We sincerely lament that we are obliged to expose such an entire want of elementary information on the first principles of celestial mechanics, as this passage betrays: but it is a duty which the author forces on us, and he must take the consequences. Again, it is said, page 9.:

'To give one instance, out of numerous erroneous opinions, which in all ages have been advanced by the most eminent philosophers, — it is at present a favourite doctrine of theirs, that there is a tendency in all bodies on the earth's surface to rise upwards; that is, to go off from the centre, and yet not one among them will venture to throw himself over a precipice; which evidently proves, either that they have never given themselves the trouble to *think* about the matter, or that they do not believe their own professed

fessed opinions to be true. Every man's own experience must convince him that the tendency of all bodies is to go downwards, for otherwise there could be no weight in bodies, and we might take a flight in the air, whenever we were so disposed; but as plain common-sense and matter of fact may not be sufficient to convince these philosophers that their own opinions are erroneous, I shall here produce an argument which they must admit to be a good one, inasmuch as it is furnished by themselves, and is to be found in every treatise on astronomy that has been published since the days of Sir Isaac Newton.'

We must be excused from giving the author's argument, which is evidently founded on an erroneous view of the subject, and caused by apparently misunderstanding the meaning of the word *tendency*. A force may have a *tendency* to produce an effect without in reality producing it; and we really cannot therefore blame philosophers for not jumping over precipices, and depending on the tendency of centrifugal forces to keep them from falling: yet we can admit that such a tendency may be the cause of certain phænomena.

We cannot enter farther on the question at issue between Captain Forman, "the philosophers," and Reviewers: but it must be plain to every person who possesses a sufficient degree of mathematical knowlege, that Captain F. entirely misunderstands the theory advanced by Newton, and nowhere distinguishes between demonstrable truths and mere hypotheses. Till he does this, it will be vain to endeavor to convince him either of the insufficiency of his own theory, or of the competency of that of Newton to solve and illustrate the phænomena of the tides.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Mr. Brown's letter is received, and shall have due consideration.

F. M. G. really prefers a petition which he ought not to have made, and to which it is quite impossibile for us to attend.

L. B. is right as to the small inaccuracy which his "*microscopic eye*" has detected, but none except him, and "*a fly*," could have perceived it.

We shall examine in our next Number the work mentioned by M. M.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1823.

Art. I. *Account of an Expedition from Pittsburgh to the Rocky Mountains*, performed in the Years 1819, 1820. By Order of the Hon. J. C. Calhoun, Secretary of War, under the Command of Major S. H. Long, of the U. S. Top. Engineers. Compiled from the Notes of Major Long, Mr. T. Say, and other Gentlemen of the Party, by Edwin James, Botanist and Geologist to the Expedition. 3 Vols. 8vo. About 350 Pages in each. 1*l.* 16*s.* Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

It is pleasing to remark that, while the spirit of exploration pervades every portion of the civilized world, the progress of the physical sciences has enabled men to multiply and facilitate the modes both of conveyance and of investigation. Perhaps, indeed, the period is not very distant when naturalists and philosophers shall have penetrated into the most remote regions of our planet, and communicated their observations and discoveries to an intelligent and grateful generation. The liberal and humane scale, on which our recent expeditions to the polar seas have been conducted, is worthy of the first maritime power in the world; and whatever the ultimate results may be, they will form a proud theme of record in the annals of our country. In the mean time, however, let us not overlook the somewhat humbler efforts either of nations or individuals, which have been directed to more practicable surveys and more attainable objects; for they, too, may eminently contribute to increase and diffuse useful knowlege; as well as to bring within the pale of intercourse and amity whole tribes and nations, between whom long intervals of territory, or ignorance and prejudice, seemed to have placed insuperable barriers. In this secondary class of undertakings, we may rank that of which the narrative is now before us, and which originated in the most legitimate views of policy: its avowed objects being to explore the Mississippi and the Missouri, with their navigable tributary streams; to note the condition and character of the inhabitants, civilized or unreclaimed, of the countries traversed by these waters; to record the native productions within reach of the travellers; to collect specimens of them; and to ascertain the most essential points relative to geology, topography, and geography. The commander was, in the first instance, accompanied by Major Biddle, Lieutenant Graham, Cadet Swift, Mr. Jessup, geologist, Dr. Baldwin, botanist, Mr. Say, zoologist, Mr. Peale, assistant naturalist, Mr. Seymour, painter, &c. and the requisite inferior attendants.

A detention of a few weeks at Pittsburgh, in the spring of 1819, enabled the gentlemen to make several excursions in different directions across the Alleghany mountains; a range which holds the second place among those of the new continent, and extends uninterruptedly along the Atlantic coast, from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the great alluvial formation of the Mississippi. Its north-western slope moderately inclines towards the bed of the Ohio and the St. Lawrence, which run nearly in opposite directions along its base. In the Alleghany river, the observers found several of those little animals which have been described as a species of *Proteus*, but which appeared to them more properly to belong to the genus *Triton*; and which Mr. S. has accordingly denominated *T. lateralis*.

A steam-boat, called the Western Engineer, having been completed and equipped, the party proceeded on their voyage on the 5th of May, when 'the dense forests of the Ohio bottoms were unfolding their luxuriant foliage, and the scattered plantations assuming the cheering aspect of summer.' In an excursion on shore, near the village of Charleston in Virginia, the botanists reaped an abundant store of specimens; among which are mentioned the delicate *Sison bulbosum*, *Sedum ternatum*, *Cercis Canadensis*, *Cornus florida*, &c. The scenery on the banks of the Ohio, for two or three hundred miles below Pittsburgh, is described as strikingly beautiful, although deficient in grandeur and variety; the hills usually approaching, in rounded and graceful forms, near to the brink of the river, and clothed with almost unbroken verdure,—but occasionally disclosing, near their summits, precipitous masses of gray sand-stone and compact lime-stone, which are the prevailing rocks.

> 'These hilly lands are found capable of yielding, by ordinary methods of culture, about fifty bushels of maize per acre. They were originally covered with dense and uninterrupted forests, in which the beech-trees were those of most frequent occurrence. These forests are now disappearing before the industry of man; and the rapid increase of population and wealth, which a few years have produced, speaks loudly in favour of the healthfulness of the climate, and of the internal resources of the country. The

difficulty of establishing an indisputable title to lands has been a cause operating hitherto to retard the progress of settlement, in some of the most fertile parts of the country of the Ohio; and the inconveniences resulting from this source still continue to be felt.'

On the 9th, the expedition passed Maysville, a small town of Kentucky, situated in uplands of extreme fertility, and in an advanced state of cultivation. At Cincinnati, the largest town on the Ohio, they remained for some days. The compact lime-stone, which appears there in the bed of the river, belongs to a formation of great extent, occupying a large part of the country from the shores of Lake Erie to the southern boundaries of the state of Tennessee; though occasionally interrupted, or overlaid, by fields of sand-stone. It abounds in casts or impressions of marine animals, and has afforded to the Museum of the College of Cincinnati an orthoceratite, which measures nearly three feet in length. In this neighbourhood, the occidental plane-tree attains a diameter of between ten and sixteen feet.

At Louisville, on the 19th, a pilot was procured to conduct the vessel over the *rapids*, a descent of about twenty-two feet within a space of less than two miles, and which it is in contemplation to avoid by a canal. Twenty-two miles farther down is Flint Island, so called from the numerous fragments of flints, or broken arrow-points, which are found on turning up the soil, and which indicate the former residence of a tribe of Indians. Some of the company, having gone on shore at Shawaneetown to hunt, killed a turkey and several small birds, and observed numerous flocks of *Psittacus Caroliniensis*, the pileated wood-pecker, the minute tern, semi-palmated sand-piper, &c. They also found a specimen of *Testudo geographica*, of Lesueur, or the Lake Erie tortoise, which occurs frequently in the pools and stagnant waters along the Ohio. Here are extensive salt manufactories, the brine springs occurring in connection with the horizontal lime-stone and sand-stone. Between the Cumberland and the Tennessee, the two largest tributaries of the Ohio, are some low hills; the sand-stone of which is occasionally overlaid with a conglomerate of white, yellow, and variously colored quartz pebbles, united by a cement highly tinged with oxyd of iron.

May 30. the expedition reached the mouth of the Ohio; a river which flows *one thousand and thirty-three miles*, 'through a country surpassed in fertility of soil by none in the United States;' and a part of which combines extensive depositions of coal-strata with its other advantages. About its junction with the Mississippi, the lands are low and alluvial, covered with dense forests and nettles, and infested with mosquitoes.

The tardy progress of the steam-boat against the heavy current of the Mississippi, and stoppages for procuring fuel, adjusting the engine, &c. afforded frequent opportunities of landing, and walking on the banks. In the course of these strolls, various interesting plants were noted; particularly the *Orchis spectabilis*, which is so common in the mountainous parts of New England, and the *Cymbidium hyemale*, with two radical leaves. — Near Cape à la Bruche, a ledge of calcareous rock stretches across the river, and marks the commencement of the hilly country on the Mississippi. About this place, the navigation is often rendered troublesome and precarious at low water by rocks which traverse the channel, and by sand bars and sunken trunks of trees. From some of these and other causes, the progress of the "Western Engineer" was occasionally interrupted, but without the vessel sustaining any serious injury.

Near the mouth of the Merameg, the naturalists encountered some interesting specimens, and among others the *Mus Floridanus*, which seems to subsist entirely on vegetable food; while the botanists gathered *Rudbeckia hirta*, and *purpurea*, a small white flowering species of *Houstonia*, and *Phlox*, a new species of *Potentilla*, &c. &c. — The impression of human feet on some of the lime-stone rocks is sensibly explained on the supposition that the superficial mud, at no remote period, was in a plastic state, and subsequently indurated. — In the same neighbourhood are numerous vestiges of an Indian population that has disappeared.

'On the 12th June, Mr. Say and Mr. Peale, accompanied by one man, descended the Mississippi, in a small boat to the mouth of the Merameg, and ascended the latter river about fifteen miles, to a place where great numbers of graves have been explored, and have been represented to contain the bones of a diminutive race of men. Most of these graves are found near the bank of the Merameg. They do not rise above the general surface, but their presence is ascertained by the vertical stones which enclose them, and project a little at either end of the grave. When the included earth and the numerous horizontal flat stones are removed, we find the sides neatly constructed of long flat stones, vertically implanted and adapted to each other, edge to edge, so as to form a continuous wall. The graves are usually three or four feet, though sometimes six feet in length. The bones they contained appeared to have been deposited after having been separated from the flesh, and from each other, according to the custom of some tribes of Indians at the present day.

'In the first grave opened by Mr. Say were found the fragments of an earthen pot, and the bones of an infantine skull; the second contained what appeared to be the remains of a middle *aged man*, of the ordinary stature, laid at full length; the bones much confused and broken. An inhabitant residing here informed them, that many similar graves had been found along the summits of most of the neighbouring hills. In one of these he had found two pieces of earthenware, one having nearly the form of a porter-bottle; the other with a wide mouth; but this grave contained no bones. After spending a night at this place, they crossed the river to the town of Lilliput, (one of the projected towns here has received this name,) the place so often mentioned as the locality of the graves of a pigmy race. Appearances here are in general similar to those already described. One head that had been dug up was that of an old person, in whom the teeth had been lost, and the alveolæ obliterated, leaving the sharp edge of the jaw-bone. From this the neighbouring settlers had inferred the existence of a race of men without teeth, having their jaws like those of the turtle. Having satisfied themselves that all the bones found here were those of men of the common size, Mr. Say and Mr. Peale "sold their skiff, shouldered their guns, bones, spade, &c. and bent their weary steps towards St. Louis, (distant sixteen miles,) where they arrived at eleven o'clock P. M., having had ample time, by the way, to indulge sundry reflections on that quality of the mind, either imbibed in the nursery or generated by evil communications, which incites to the love of the marvellous, and, by hyperbole, casts the veil of falsehood over the charming features of simple nature."

These graves evidently contain the relics of a more modern people than those who erected the mounds.

"On the summit of one of the large hillocks, near St. Louis, (No. 27. described in Note [10],) are several of these graves: we opened five of them, but in one only were we fortunate in finding any thing interesting, and all that this contained was a solitary tooth of a species of rat, together with the vertebræ and ribs of a serpent of moderate size, and in good preservation; but whether the animal had been buried by the natives, or had perished there, after having found admittance through some hole, we could not determine. If they were buried by the Indians, they are probably the bones of a species of crotalus, as it is known that many Indians of the present day have a sort of veneration for animals of that genus. The circumstance of the discovery of these bones renders it somewhat probable, that rattlesnakes were formerly worshipped by the natives of America, and their remains, like those of the Ibis of Egypt, religiously entombed after death."

"The circumstance of a *Cassis cornutus*, or large conch-shell, having been found in one of these tumuli near Cincinnati, is adduced as an argument in support of the opinion that the first inhabitants of America were derived from Asia. — A great many large mounds, without inscriptions, were observed in the prairies of the Illinois, opposite to St. Louis.

On the 22d of June, the party entered the Missouri, which was still swollen by the spring floods, and so charged with mud and sand as to be absolutely opaque, and of an argillaceous hue. At so great a distance from the sea-coast, they were not a little surprized to observe a flock of black-headed terns; and the fact is indeed remarkable, if the journalist alludes to our common species, or *Sterna hirundo*, Lin. (which is, we believe, in Hudson's Bay called the *Black-headed*); but, if the bird in question be the *Nigra*, it frequents fresh in preference to salt water. At Bellefontain, Dr. Baldwin found a plant which he considered as forming a new genus, nearly allied to *Astragalus*; also *Rosa mutabilis*, *Podalyria alba*, *Anemone Virginiana*, *Polygala incarnata*, &c.: — but this excellent botanist, and most estimable man, did not long survive, having fallen a sacrifice to a pulmonic affection under which his strength had been gradually sinking. This event is feelingly deplored in the narrative.

At St. Charles, the expedition was joined by Major O'Fallon, agent for Indian affairs in the Missouri, and his interpreter, Mr. John Dougherty, who had travelled by land from St. Louis. Arrangements were at the same time made for Messrs. Say, Jessup, Peale, and Seymour, to travel up the river, on land, within easy reach of the steam-boat, whenever its protection or accommodation might be deemed necessary. Their progress to Louter Island, where they rejoined their companions, was marked by sickness, privations, and fatigue: but the navigation had also proved both tedious and troublesome.

A large species of *Lampyris*, different from the common fire-fly, was frequent on the lower part of the Missouri; emitting from three to seven or eight corruscations, in rapid succession, and then ceasing, but shortly renewing its brilliancy. — In the bottoms, the black walnut and the cotton trees attain to such ample dimensions, that two hundred fence-rails, eleven feet in length, and from four to six inches in thickness, have been procured from one of the former; and thirty thousand shingles from one of the latter. — The *milk-sickness* of the Missouri, as it has been called, appears to have been erroneously attributed to some deleterious vegetable substance eaten by the cows, and to be rather a nervous or typhoid fever, induced by putrid exhalations; possibly aggravated by the incautious use of a milk-diet. — The river of the *Osage*, so called from the Indian tribes inhabiting its banks, and which enters the Missouri at one hundred and thirty-three miles above the confluence of the latter with the Mississippi, scarcely yields in magnitude to the Cumberland, or the Tennessee; traversing, in its rapid course, broad and fruitful bottom lands, characterized by heavy forests of sycamore and cotton trees. — Franklin, the seat of justice for Howard county, has increased rapidly, being situated in a rich productive soil, and in the vicinity of saline springs. Here compact lime-stone is apparently the predominant rock, but strata of sandstone and beds of coal occur at a little distance from the river. With the increase of population, most of the deer, large animals, and turkies, which formerly abounded, have disappeared.

Charaton, another very recent settlement, near the mouth of the river of the same name, promises to be the depôt of merchandise for a great extent of territory that contains inexhaustible stores of coal. 'The Western Engineer being the first steam-boat that had ever ascended the Missouri above Charaton, great numbers of the settlers were attracted to the banks of the river, on both sides, to witness our progress. So numerous were the obstacles to be encountered, that many were of opinion our progress would soon be arrested. It sometimes happened, that, mistaking the channel, we ran our boat aground in shoal places, and in some instances it was necessary to fall back, in order to extricate ourselves from these difficulties. In this way much time was consumed.' Farther up, the navigation proved still more arduous, owing to the rapidity of the currents, and the many sand-bars and *snags*: but the explorers arrived, without experiencing any material discomfiture, at Fort Osage, which stands on an elevation, and commands a fine view of the river. It was established by Governor Lewis, in 1808, and is computed to be 142 miles above Charaton. — Between this station and the mouth of the Konzas river, a distance of about 52 miles, the progress of the vessel was considerably retarded by rapids. The Konzas, in various respects, resembles the Missouri; but its current is more moderate, and its waters, except in times of flood, are less turbid. At Isle au Vache, [*aux Vaches*,] the party was reinforced by a boat of fifteen men, under Lieutenant Field, as an additional protection against the Indians, to whose attacks they were now exposed. In consequence of a rencontre with an armed band of Pawnees, Mr. Say and his attendants, who had made a considerable excursion on land, were compelled to return to their friends; but they had met with an hospitable reception from the Indians of the Konzas village, some of whose manners and customs are well delineated.

Above the Platte, the scenery becomes more abrupt and interesting, the bluffs on each side being more elevated and naked, like groupes of granitic mountains seen at a distance; the forests within the valleys being of very limited extent, and interspersed with meadows, profusely covered with marsh plants.

Sept. 19. The expedition reached the place that was destined for their winter-station, situated at half a mile from Fort Lisa, and five miles below Council Bluffs; abounding in wood and stone, and sheltered by calcareous hills from the north-west winds. It was now named *Engineer Cantonment.* The cabins for winter-quarters were completed early in October; and Major Long, having made arrangements for his return to Washington, issued orders for the guidance of his officers and men during his absence.

Among the animals remarked by the naturalists in this neighbourhood, were *Sorex parvus* and *brevicaudatus, Vespertilio pruinosus* and *arquatus, Canis latrans* and *nubilus, Sylvia bifasciata, Pelidna pectoralis* and *cinclus,* and *Coluber flaviventris, parietalis,* and *proximus.* The *Canis latrans,* or *Prairie wolf,* roams over the plains in considerable numbers, and, during the night, will venture very near the encampment of travellers.

'Their bark is much more distinctly like that of the domestic dog, than of any other animal; in fact, the first two or three notes could not be distinguished from the bark of a small terrier, but these notes are succeeded by a lengthened scream.

'The wonderful intelligence of this animal is well worthy of note, and a few anecdotes respecting it may not be amiss. Mr. Peale constructed and tried various kinds of traps to take them, one of which was of the description called "a live trap," a shallow box reversed, and supported at one end, by the well known kind of trap sticks, usually called the "figure four," which elevated the front of the trap upwards of three feet above its slab flooring; the trap was about six feet long, and nearly the same in breadth, and was plentifully baited with offal. Notwithstanding this arrangement, a wolf actually burrowed under the flooring, and pulled down the bait through the crevices of the floor; tracks of different sizes were observed about the trap. This procedure would seem to be the result of a faculty beyond mere instinct.

'This trap proving useless, another was constructed in a different part of the country, formed like a large cage, but with a small entrance on the top, through which the animals might enter, but not return; this was equally unsuccessful; the wolves attempted in vain to get at the bait, as they would not enter by the route prepared for them.

'A large double "steel trap" was next tried; this was profusely baited, and the whole, with the exception of the bait, was carefully concealed beneath the fallen leaves. This was also unsuccessful. Tracks of the anticipated victims were next day observed to be impressed in numbers on the earth near the spot, but still the trap, with its seductive charge, remained untouched. The bait was then removed from the trap, and suspended over it from the branch of a tree; several pieces of meat were also suspended in a similar manner, from trees in the vicinity; the following

ing morning the bait over the trap alone remained. Supposing that their exquisite sense of smell warned them of the position of the trap, it was removed, and again covered with leaves, and the baits being disposed as before, the leaves to a considerable distance around were burned, and the trap remained perfectly concealed by ashes; still the bait over the trap was avoided. Once only this trap was sprung, and had fastened for a short time upon the foot of a species, which was shot the following day at no great distance; it proved to be a species distinct from the prairie wolf, and we have described it under the name of C. nubilus.

'In no respect disheartened by these futile attempts many times repeated, and varied in every obvious manner, another scheme was executed, which eventuated in complete success. This was the log trap, in which one log is elevated above another at one end, by means of an upright stick, which rests upon a rounded horizontal trigger-stick, on the inferior log.'

Mr. James has furnished us with copious statements relative to the condition, character, and usages of various Indian tribes and nations who dwell near the Missouri and its tributary waters; and he reports, in an animated manner, the meetings of some of their chiefs and war-parties with Major O'Fallon. Of all the objects which were exhibited to the Omawhaws, quicksilver seemed to excite the most surprize. They weighed the vessel in which it was contained, in their hands, dipped their fingers into it, and were surprized at the resistance which it offered to the immersion, and what appeared most singular was, that they should be withdrawn without any appearance of moisture upon them; that they might not be deceived they repeated the experiment again and again. A couple of iron nails were then thrown upon the mercury, and as these did not sink to the bottom, they pressed them down with their fingers; but finding that the nails constantly arose to the surface, the Big Elk returned the vessel to me, saying with a smile of pleasure strongly impressed on his strongly marked countenance, that the fluid was the Omawhaw's Wahconda,' or Deity.

In stature, the Missouri Indian is rather above than below the ordinary European standard, and his form is well proportioned. His forehead retires much backwards, and the occiput has a flattened appearance: but the facial angle, which Blumenbach, reckoning from the cranium of a Carib, states at 73, is presumed from Dr. Haslan's mensurations to average 78, or 80. The nose is generally prominent, and the lips are more tumid than those of the white American, though far less so than those of the Negro. The color of the skin, which has been assimilated to that of smoaked bacon, is obviously independent of climate; those parts of the body,

which

birth, a vegetable decoction is sometimes administered; and the rattle of the rattle-snake is also given with, it is said, considerable effect. The singular appendages of this animal are bruised by pounding, or comminuted by friction between the hands, mixed with warm water; and about the quantity of two segments constitutes a dose.

'The art of *turning* does not appear to be known, neither is blood-letting practised in their obstetrics. We heard of no case of a retention of the placenta after parturition, nor of the affection of longing, or of nausea of the stomach during pregnancy.

'On the delivery of her first child, the young mother, who appears to be but little enfeebled by the process, arises almost immediately, and attends to the ordinary house-work; but she does not, in general, undergo any laborious occupation, such as cutting and carrying wood, until the lapse of two or three days. The second child is brought forth without difficulty, and the parent, after bathing, ties it to a board, after their usual manner, then proceeds with her daily work, as if nothing extraordinary had occurred.

'Mammary abscess is very rare; a squaw of the Sioux nation died with this complaint.

'Sterility, although it does occur, is not frequent, and seems to be mostly attributable to the husband, as is evinced by subsequent marriages of the squaws.

'The usual number of children may be stated at from four to six in a family, but in some families are ten or twelve. Of these the mother has often two at the breast simultaneously, of which one may be three years of age. At this age, however, and sometimes rather earlier, the child is weaned by the aid of ridicule, in which the parents are assisted by visitors.

'The catalogue of the diseases of both children and adults, probably bears a similar proportion to that of the white people, and is far less extensive and appalling.'

The girls are kept in a state of domestic thraldom: while the boys, almost from infancy, are habituated to climb hills, to fast, to shoot with the bow, and to practise the arts of warfare. 'It is a great singularity in the manners of the Omawhaws, that neither the father-in-law nor mother-in-law will hold any direct conversation with their son-in-law: nor will he, on any occasion, or under any consideration, converse immediately with them, although no ill-will exists between them; they will not, on any account, mention each other's name in company, nor look in each other's faces: any conversation that passes between them is conducted through the medium of some other person.'

In proportion as individuals of either sex become helpless through old age, they cease to be respected, and are frequently allowed to die with the apparent unconcern of the rest of the family. The diseases and morbid affections to which these people are subject, are much less numerous than those which mingle in the lot of civilized life;' and even baldness seems to be unknown among them. Although they travel for days and weeks together, without any covering for the head, and over shadeless plains, exposed to the ardor of the solar rays, they are never attacked by the *coup de soleil*, as the white residents often are, notwithstanding all their precautions. Their range of medical practice is chiefly limited to superstitious observances, or to a few inert applications: but in some cases they have recourse to a rude mode of bleeding, and to burning the pith of a plant on the skin, in order to produce a blister. Intoxication is frequent among them, but confirmed insanity is said to be unknown. Even the squaws occasionally indulge in the free use of whiskey; and children are initiated by their parents in the delights of inebriety.

Though the Omawhaws believe in a future state, their notions on this subject are very vague and confused. The existence of hell and the devil forms no part of their creed: but to the Giver of Life they ascribe omnipresence, omniscience, and omnipotence; and they suppose that he appears to different individuals in various forms and characters. In this respect, many are the impostures which their magicians, or *medicine-men*, practise on the credulity of the people. 'How can we wonder at this facility, with which a simple people are blinded, through the medium of their superstitious faith, when we know that infinitely more monstrous absurdities obtain the inconsiderate assent, or excite the fears of thousands of civilized men, in the most populous and enlightened cities of Europe and America, and that the horseshoe, even at this day, is frequently seen attached to the threshold of a door, as a security against the entrance of a witch?'—Melancholy instances are recorded of the exhibitions of suffering solicited, or inflicted, by penitents and devotees. On the death of an Omawhaw, the kinsmen and friends assemble round the body, and bewail their loss with loud lamentations and clapping of hands: but the corpse is often consigned to the grave before the warmth of vitality is quite extinct. In token of sorrow, the relatives bedaub themselves with white clay, make incisions of the skin and flesh with a piece of flint, or cut off some joints of the fingers. 'The Omawhaw seldom renders himself unhappy with gloomy anticipations of the future, but almost literally takes "no care for the morrow." He will say to his squaw, "Cook what meat you have, for the Wahconda will give us more to-morrow; and if not to-morrow, next day; and if never, let us eat what we have got."'

By a sort of rude hieroglyphical painting on bisons' skins, these people contrive to convey a very tolerable account of a battle. Their persons are neatly tattooed by professional operators. Their astronomical knowlege is of course very limited, but their topographical acquaintance with the districts over which they roam is very accurate; though they are often lost during foggy weather, or heavy falls of snow. The few earthen vessels which they still manufacture are unglazed, and in their composition resemble the antique fragments of pottery 'found in various parts of the United States; the mementos of a numerous people, that have been destroyed by obscure causes, as well as by the avaricious policy, and cruelly unjust and barbarous encroachments of a people, professing the mild doctrines of "peace on earth and good will to men."' — Most of the Indians are excellent riders: but their unfortunate horses are much galled by the rude sort of saddles to which their backs are subjected. In their war-parties, the medicine-bag, or repository of spells, is guarded with respectful attention. The capture of a prisoner, or the striking of a fallen foe, is deemed far more honorable than merely killing an enemy, because attended with greater risk of life, the friends of the insulted corpse being on the watch for revenge, and often lying in ambush. A successful war-party, on returning to their village, is greeted with clamor and rejoicings; and the women mingle in the war and scalp dances, with more eagerness even than the men. Female prisoners are doomed to domestic servitude; young men taken in war are usually charged with the management of the horses: but children in the same predicament are adopted into the family, and treated as if they had originally belonged to it.

The Omawhaws regard themselves as superior in the scale of beings to the Whites, and as even braver and more hospitable; and it is certain that they will share their last morsel of provisions with a stranger, usually serving up more food to a guest than he can eat. Since the agents of the United States have obtained so much influence over them, their military movements have been limited to defensive warfare. Traffic in the necessaries of life they hold to be contemptible. They particularly excel in imitating the cries of various animals. Their poetry is destitute of rhymes. The following is given as a specimen of the legendary stories or apologues in which they so much delight:

'A bison bull, an ant, and a tortoise, agreed to undertake a joint war-excursion, against the village of a neighbouring nation. As the latter associate was a slow walker, it was mutually decided *in council, that* he should set out on the journey immediately, to be followed in a short time by his more active companions. The tortoise accordingly departed alone, making his way through the grass, with as much rapidity as possible. After a proper interval had elapsed, the bull also set out; and lest he should lose his fellow-traveller, he consented to take him on his back. On their way the two champions were obliged to cross a miry place, in the midst of which they overtook the tortoise, struggling onward with the utmost labour, and apparently almost exhausted. They did not fail, as they passed gaily by the sluggish reptile, to express their surprise at his unusually tardy movements, and at the circumstance of his being apparently almost subdued by the first obstacle that presented itself. The tortoise, however, not at all discouraged, requested them to continue their journey, and expressed his confident expectation of being able to extricate himself from the mire, without the aid which they did not seem forward in offering to him. The two companions arrived at the village of the enemy, and were so incautious in their approaches to it, as to be discovered by the inhabitants, who sallied out upon them, and succeeded in wounding them both. The tortoise at length reached the village, and was also discovered, but had the additional misfortune of being taken prisoner.

'To punish him for his presumption, the enemy resolved to put him to death in such a manner as would be most painful to him. They accordingly threatened him successively with a number of different forms of torture, such as baking in hot embers, boiling, &c., with each of which the captive artfully expressed his entire satisfaction. They finally proposed to drown him; and this mode of punishment being so earnestly protested against by the tortoise, they determined to carry it into immediate execution.

'With this view, several of the enemy carried him out into a deep part of the river, and threw him in.

'The tortoise, thus released, and, through the ignorance of the captors in the art of torturing, abandoned to an element in which he could act freely and with much power, dived down from their view, and rising again, dragged two or three of them under water successively, and scalped them. Then rising above the surface of the water, he exhibited the scalps triumphantly to the enemy, who stood in crowds upon the bank of the river, unable to injure him. Content with his fortunate achievement, the tortoise now journeyed homeward; and on arriving at his lodge, he found there the bull and ant, both in bed, groaning piteously with their wounds.'

Such tales the more readily ensure belief because these people are firmly persuaded that, in antient times, the inferior animals were endued with the powers of speech. — Dancing exhibitions, especially that of the calumet, of which these savages are all very fond, are usually rewarded by presents to the performers. An entertaining recital, but too long for transcription, is given of the proceedings on the formal conclusion of a peace between the inhabitants of the Konza [illegible] village; and the Otoes, Missouries, and Ioways, who then dwelled in one village on the Platte.

In the course of the month of April, some of the party made occasional excursions to Boyer's Creek, the village of the Pawnees, &c. Though accompanied by Major O'Fallon, their reception at the last-mentioned place was more cool than they had anticipated; and it was only by maintaining a dignified deportment that they induced the chiefs to treat them with attention, and to exchange harangues and presents. Petalesharoo, son of the present chief of the Pawnees, who from his physical and mental qualifications, was held second only to his father, had the merit of having put a stop to the barbarous practice of annually sacrificing a female captive to Venus, or the *Great Star*, with the view of obtaining a plentiful crop of vegetable food.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Relics of Literature.* By Stephen Collet, A. M. (With a Plate of Autographs.) 8vo. 15s. Boards. Boys. 1823.

LIKE one of those vases which in summer-time occupy our fire-places, and exhibit in motley confusion the spoils of the garden and the shrubbery, combining native with exotic wreaths, and uniting deciduous flowers with evergreens, so this volume is variegated with gathered tufts and detached sprigs, fresh to the eye but parted from the root, gay and fragrant, but soon to be flung away in favor of newer blossoms. The compilation here offered to the public contains more than two hundred and fifty distinct articles of intelligence, extracted from uncommon publications, but arranged, or rather mingled, in a "chance-medley" manner. Numerous anecdotes, many scraps of poetry, and a variety of curious passages, have been assembled; and any reader, who is disappointed in a first or a second trial, may still depend on finding something to stimulate his attention by persevering in his progress. Selections, however, should be choice; but this is indiscriminate, and nearly half of the collected matter might as well have reposed in its original obscurity. The 'editor (for he aspires to no higher honor)' empties his whole port-folio, without reflecting that what is new to him may not be new to all others; and that even what is rare is not therefore necessarily good. In the spirit of a literary broker, he confounds scarcity with value, and attaches merit to the number rather than the quality of his distributions.

"Some of these articles, Mr. Collet informs us in his preface, *were collected* in the course of a visit which he paid to the United States of America, and others have been derived from manuscripts examined at the British Museum: but the greater part are selections made during the desultory perusal of books, which he consulted because they were unknown. References and comments accompany many of the extracts: but occasionally the reader has to guess both the source of information and the motive of transcription. A few specimens will suffice of a volume which is itself a series of quotations. We shall be but the fripperers of second-hand clothes, the reflectors of moonlight, the echoers of a mock-bird's song.

Among the American collections, a letter on the '*Married Life*' from the celebrated Washington places that inflexible patriot and warrior in a new point of view. It is addressed to the Marquis de Chastellux, whose travels in America we reviewed many years ago.

'The following elegant letter, on a very interesting subject, from the pen of the celebrated Washington, has been communicated to the present collector by a learned American. It has not, he believes, appeared before in any European publication.

'*Letter from General Washington to the Marquis de Chastellux.*

'My dear Marquis, Mount Vernon, April 25th, 1788.

'In reading your friendly and acceptable letter of the 21st December, 1787, which came to hand by last mail, I was, as you may well suppose, not less delighted than surprised, to come across that plain American word "my wife." A wife! Well, my dear Marquis, I can hardly refrain from smiling, to find you are caught at last. I saw, by the eulogium you often made on the happiness of domestic life in America, that you had swallowed the bait, and that you would, as sure as you are a philosopher and a soldier, be taken one day or other. So your day has at length come. I am glad of it with all my life and soul. It is good enough for you: now you are so well served for coming to fight in favour of the American rebels all the way across the Atlantic Ocean, by catching that terrible contagion, which, like the small-pox or the plague, a man can only have once in his life, because it commonly lasts him (at least with us in America: I don't know how you manage these matters in France) for his life-time. And yet, after all the maledictions you so richly merit on the subject, the worst wish I can find it in my heart to make against Madame de Chastellux and yourself, is, that you may neither of you get the better of this domestic felicity during the course of your mortal existence.

'If so wonderful an event should have occasioned me, my dear Marquis, to have written in a strange style, you will understand me as clearly as if I had said, (what, in plain English, is simple truth,) do me the justice to believe, that I take heartfelt interest in whatever concerns your happiness; and in this view, I sincerely congratulate you on your auspicious matrimonial connexion.

I am happy to find, that Madame de Chastellux is so immediately connected with the Duchess of Orleans, as I have always understood that this noble lady was an illustrious pattern of connubial love, as well as an excellent model of virtue in general.

While you have been making love under the banner of Hymen, the great personages of the north have been making war under the inspiration, or rather the infatuation of Mars. Now, for my part, I humbly conceive you had much the best and wisest of the bargain; for certainly it is more consonant to all the principles of reason and religion (natural and revealed) to replenish the earth with inhabitants, rather than depopulate it by killing those already in existence; besides, it is time for the age of knight-errantry and mad heroism to be at an end.

' Your young military men, who want to reap the harvest of laurels, don't care, I suppose, how many seeds of war are sown; but, for the sake of humanity, it is devoutly to be wished, that the manly employment of agriculture, and the humanizing benefits of commerce, should supersede the waste of war and the rage of conquest; that the swords might be turned into plough-shares, the spears into pruning-hooks, and, as the Scriptures express it, " the nations learn war no more."

' I will now give you a little news from this side of the Atlantic, and then finish. As for us, we are plodding on in the dark road of peace and politics. We, who live in these ends of the earth, only hear of the rumours of war, like the roar of distant thunder. It is to be hoped our remote local situation will prevent us from being swept into its vortex.

' The constitution, which was proposed by the federal convention, has been adopted by the states of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania, and Georgia. No state has rejected it. The convention of Maryland is now sitting, and will probably adopt it, as that of South Carolina will do in May. The other conventions will assemble early in the summer. Hitherto, there has been much greater unanimity in favour of the proposed government than could have been reasonably expected.

' Should it be adopted (and I think it will be), America will lift up her head again, and in a few years become respectable among the nations. It is a flattering and consolatory reflection, that our rising republic has the good wishes of all philosophers, patriots, and virtuous men, in all nations; and that they look upon it as a kind of asylum for mankind. God grant that we may not be disappointed in our honest expectations by our folly and perverseness!

' With sentiments of the purest attachment and esteem, I have the honour to be, my dear Marquis, your most obedient and humble servant,

' GEORGE WASHINGTON.'

' P.S. If the Duke de Lauzun is still with you, I beg you will thank him, in my name, for his kind remembrance of me, and make my compliments to him.

'May 1st. — Since writing the above, I have been favoured with a duplicate of your letter, in the hand-writing of a lady, and cannot close this without acknowledging my obligations to the flattering postscript of the fair transcriber. In effect, my dear Marquis, the characters of this interpreter of your sentiments are so much fairer than those through which I have been accustomed to decipher them, that I already consider myself as no small gainer by your matrimonial connexion; especially as, I hope, that your amiable amanuensis will not forget, sometimes, to add a few annotations of her own to your original text. ' G. W.'

We have the following specimen of verses that may be read two ways, and with a double meaning.

EQUIVOCAL VERSES.

' *The Jesuit's Double-faced Creed:* — in two Languages.

' I hold for sound faith	What England's church allows
What Rome's faith saith	My conscience disavows
Where the King's head	The flock can take no shame
The flock's misled	Who hold the Pope supreme
Where th' altar's dress'd	The worship's scarce divine
The people's bless'd	Whose table's bread and wine
He's but an ass	Who their communion flies
Who shuns the mass	Is catholick and wise.
' *Pro fide teneo sanâ*	*Quæ docet Anglicana*
Affirmat quæ Romana	*Videntur mihi vana*
Supremus quando Rex est	*Tunc plebs est fortunata*
Erraticus tum Grex est	*Cùm caput fiat Papa*
Altare cùm ornatur	*Communio fit inanis*
Populus tum beatur	*Cùm mensa vino panis*
Asini nomen meruit	*Hunc morem qui non capit*
Missam qui deseruit	*Catholicus est, et sapit.*

' The Weekly Paquet of Advice from Rome,
No. 23, May 6th, 1679.'

' *The Houses of Stuart and Hanover.*

' I love with all my heart	The Tory party here
The Hanoverian part	Most hateful do appear
And for that settlement	I ever have deny'd
My conscience gives consent	To be on James's side
Most righteous is the cause	To fight for such a king
To fight for George's laws	Will England's ruin bring
It is my mind and heart	In this opinion I
Tho' none will take my part	Resolve to live and die.

Dundee MSS.'

' The following lines, in the same style as the two preceding, were written in answer to a question by a republican — What the author thought of the new constitution at the commencement of the French Revolution?

' *A la nouvelle loi*	*Je veux être fidèle*
Je renonce dans l'ame	*Au régime ancien*

Comme épreuve de ma foi	*Je crois la loi nouvelle,*
Je crois celle qu'on blame	*Opposée à tout bien;*
Dieu vous donne la paix	*Messieurs les Democrats,*
Noblesse desolée	*Au diable allez vous en:*
Qu'il confonde à jamais	*Tous les Aristocrats*
Messieurs de l'Assemblée	*Ont eux seuls le bon sens.*

' The newly made law	'Tis my wish to esteem
From my soul I abhor	The ancient regime.
My faith to prove good	I maintain the new code
I maintain the old code	Is opposed to all good
May God give you peace	Messieurs Democrats
Forsaken noblesse	To the devil go hence
May he ever confound	All the Aristocrats
The Assembly all round	Are the sole men of sense.'

The ensuing trait of *self-devotion* is not wholly without a parallel.

' *Selling One's Body.*

' The following curious letter was found among the papers of Mr. Goldwyr, a surgeon, of Salisbury :

' *To Mr. Edward Goldwyr, at his House in the Close of Salisbury :*

' Sir,

' Being informed that you are the only surgeon in this city (or county) that anatomises men, and I being under the unhappy circumstance, and in a very mean condition, would gladly live as long as I can; but, by all appearance, I am to be executed next March, having no friends on earth that will speak a word to save my life, nor send me a morsel of bread to keep life and soul together until that fatal day: so, if you will vouchsafe to come hither, I will gladly sell you my body, (being whole and sound,) to be ordered at your discretion; knowing that it will rise again at the general resurrection, as well from your house as from the grave. Your answer, Sir, will highly oblige,

' Yours, &c.

' *Fisherton-Anger Gaol, Oct.* 3d, 1736. ' JAMES BROOKE.'

The bibliomaniac may be thankful for the subsequent information :

' *The Wirtemberg Biblical Library.*

' In the King of Wirtemberg's library, there are more than 4000 different editions of the whole Bible or distinct parts of it, in European and foreign languages; of the former, it contains,

35	Upper German	115	Saxon
18	Portuguese	215	English
15	Spanish	274	Dutch
43	Italian	116	Danish
290	French	14	Icelandic
1	Rhœtian	3	Greenlandic

45 Swedish
6 Finnish
3 Lapponic
8 Russian
3 Croatian
21 Bohemian
10 Wendish
20 Polish
6 Lithuanian
7 Lettonian
4 Esthonian
7 Hungarian
5 Welsh
1 Irish
1 Cantabrian, or Base.'

We the more readily transcribe this curious notice, because it would evidently do honor to the munificence of the Foreign and British Bible Society to found, in this country, one grand repository devoted exclusively to various editions of the Bible. Ecclesiastical history and philology could not but be gainers by an institution which piety has repeatedly realized on the Continent, and which here would have the additional interest of recording costly efforts of national industry.

An amusing story from an American manuscript is thus given:

'*Love in the Wilds.*

Late in the autumn of 17—, some gentlemen were making a tour of the western part of the state of New York, a journey executed at that time with difficulty, and in many places scarcely practicable. The scites of those beautiful towns and villages, which now line the road through which the traveller passes, were then covered with impervious woods, which few men had beheld, and fewer yet had thought of making the scene of their habitations and their homes. Tedious was then the route which now affords such pleasure; men hurried from a spot, where social intercourse scarcely existed, and where the solitary Indian hunter still reigned undisturbed lord. Towards the close of a delightful autumnal day, as they were gently entering, in a boat, the beautiful lake of Oneida, and had just emerged from the embouchure of Wood Creek, the languid strokes of a distant oar caught the ear of our travellers; it sounded nearer and nearer, and they soon found it proceeded from a small canoe, rowed by one solitary individual. As it approached alongside, they asked him whither he was destined? He sullenly answered, he was bound to Oneida Castle. His appearance excited the attention of the party; his garments were faded, though not in tatters; his face such as a Salvator Rosa would have loved to pourtray; his accent bespoke him of French descent. He passed on, as if wishing to hold no further converse; and our travellers had scarcely ceased wondering at the incident, before his canoe was far behind them. The boat slowly proceeded on. The sun had sunk below the horizon, and the shades of night were thickening fast, when an island of considerable extent appeared before them. Although the party had heard of its existence, and the name by which it was known by the boatmen of the lake, yet no person was known to have ever before visited it, or landed on its shores. The boatmen called it "*Hoger Bust;*" in English, "High Breast," a Dutch appellation, which its appearance and situation rendered apt and appropriate. The nearer they approached, they were surprised at perceiving marks of cultivation; convinced that it must be inhabited, they shouted loudly, but no one answered to their call. They then landed, and notwithstanding the night had set in, with lights which they struck in the boat they traced their way through a short wood, and suddenly entered at the end of it upon an avenue of shrubbery, and twigs of trees interwoven in the form of lattice-work, lining each side of the walk; at the termination of which, a rude hut was visible. They knocked at the door, and it was opened by a female, who accosted them in French; they informed her of the cause of their visit, and then asked her if she was not disturbed by the noise and cry they made? She told them she was not, for she thought it occasioned by the Indians, who were her friends. Our travellers beheld her with surprise; she was clothed in coarse and uncouth attire, had no shoes on her feet, and her long hair hung in wild luxuriance down her back; her air and mien were, however, those of a person educated and accomplished. She seemed scarcely twenty; her size was small, and her interesting appearance was heightened by an eye full of intelligence and expression. On informing her of their wish to remain on the island during the night, she politely requested them to make use of her house; this, however, they, with many thanks, declined, but pitched their tents near it, whilst the bargemen slept on the shore, near the boat. Next morning, they paid their respects to the interesting recluse, and received from her the following particulars of her history. The man whom they met on the lake was, she said, her husband, who had gone to the Castle of Oneida to procure provisions. They had been sometime inhabitants of this solitude, though not always on the island they now occupied; they had resided for months in the Castle of Oneida, among the Indians; she described them as mild and unoffending; that she had formed friendships there, which had even to that day been of service to herself and husband; and, as the Indians had not forgotten them, they occasionally left at their secluded settlement, on a return from their hunting excursions, a portion of their game. She had herself, she said, learned to fish and fowl; had often swam from one island to another; and employed her gun with great success in the destruction of wild fowl. Such was all that the fair stranger was pleased to disclose of a life evidently of no ordinary cast, and the travellers not wishing to embarrass her by questions as to the cause of her seclusion, intimated their intention of leaving the island immediately. On hearing this she flew, with an eager avidity to oblige, to the garden, and with her own hands dug up vegetables from the ground, and presented them to her guests. Before they departed, they selected some wines out of their stores, and other articles which would be luxurious for her in this comparative wilderness, and left them where she was sure to find them, considering it an indelicacy to make her a direct offer of them. They then left the island, uttering an inward prayer for her welfare. On their way back, they stopped at

et-a settlement some miles down the lake, and having related their adventure to some of the settlers, were informed that the lady had been once a nun in France; that she had been taken from a convent in Lisle, by the person they met alone in the canoe, and carried to America; that the cause of his occupying the island was his extreme *jealousy*; that he rigorously restrained her from going anywhere from it, and had refused to allow her to visit a wife of one of the settlers, who had made a request to that purpose. How strange that such feelings should pervade a man among the wilds of the forest; that he should not think the being on whom he has placed his earthly affection, secure in a solitary isle, which holds but her and himself for its inhabitants!—(*From an old memorandum book of one of the party.*)'

The *antiquities of lotteries* may deserve record, now that the practice is (we hope) going out of fashion.

Lotteries in England.

'The first English lottery I have met with, was drawn A.D. 1569. It consisted of forty thousand lots, at ten shillings each lot. The prizes were plate; and the profits were to go towards repairing the havens of this kingdom. It was drawn (as Maitland from Stow informs us, vol. i. p. 257.) at the west door of St. Paul's cathedral. The drawing began on the 11th of January, 1569, and continued incessantly, day and night, until the 6th of May following. At this time there were only three lottery-offices in London. The proposals for this lottery were published in the years 1567 and 1568. It was, at first, intended to have been drawn at the house of Mr. Dericke, her Majesty's servant, (*i. e.* her jeweller,) but was afterwards drawn as above mentioned.

'Dr. Rawlinson shewed the Society of Antiquaries, in 1748, a copy of the preceding lottery-scheme, and it is thus entitled—"A proposal for a very rich lottery, general without any blankes; containing a great number of good prizes, as well of ready money as of plate, and certain sorts of merchandizes, having been valued and prised by the commandment of the Queene's most excellent Majestye's order, to the intent that such commodities as may chance to arise thereof, after the charges borne, may be converted towards the reparation of the havens, and strength of the realme, and towards such other further good works. The number of lots shall be forty thousand, and no more: and every lott shall be the summe of tenne shillings sterling only, and no more. To be filled by the Feast of St. Bartholomew. The shew of prizes are to be seen in Cheapside, at the sign of the Queene's Armes, at the house of Mr. Dericke, goldsmith, servant to the Queene. Printed by Henry Bynneman, 1567."

'In 1612, King James, for the special encouragement of the plantation of English colonies in Virginia, granted a lottery to be held at the west end of St. Paul's. One Thomas Sharplys, a tailor of London, had the chief prize, amounting to four thousand crowns in "faire plate," 'In the reign of Queen Anne, it was thought necessary to suppress lotteries as nuisances to the public.

'In the reign of George I. it was found expedient to revive them, as helps to government in bribing the representatives of the people to vote away the rights and property of their constituents; —and "To raise a new fund to pay placemen their wages."

'In the reign of George III. they were still continued; no longer, certainly, for purposes of bribery, but for a purpose equally flagitious, that of supporting a Christian government by means of the worst vices that can possibly afflict a community.'

Some articles deserve a perusal which are too long for our limits: such as the dissertations on the original story of King Lear, of Othello, and of Macbeth. Should Mr. Collet persist in this patch-work book-making, we advise a more methodical arrangement of his materials, a collocation of those fragments which bear on the same branch of inquiry, and an union into groupes of the individual parcels of instruction. Without this plan, a reader has nearly as much trouble in finding the additions to his knowlege which this book is adapted to afford, as he would have in a random consultation of the very works from which they are obtained. It is not enough to compile a heap of motley pebbles; they should be paved into a mosaic pattern.

Art. III. *A View of the Agriculture, Manufactures, Statistics, and State of Society, of Germany and Parts of Holland and France; taken during a Journey through those Countries in* 1819. By William Jacob, Esq. F.R.S. 4to. pp. 454. 1*l*. 15*s*. Boards. Murray.

The name of Mr. Jacob is already known to the readers of our Journal; or at least to those among them whose acquaintance with our labors goes back to the year 1811, his travels in Spain having been reported in our Number for May in that year. His present publication treats of a very different quarter, viz. of the Dutch provinces and the north of Germany; for the author, having landed at Helvoetsluis, continued his course through Westphalia, Hanover, and Brandenburg, returning in a more southerly line by Saxony, Hesse Cassel, and the banks of the Rhine. Having visited Germany on a former occasion, (in the year 1798,) Mr. J. was enabled to give additional interest to his observations by comparing the past with the present state of the country; and though improvement advances there at a much slower pace than in this country, he had the satisfaction of witnessing an evident change for the better in several respects: particularly in agriculture,

culture, manufactures, and the state of the roads, as well as in the minor point, though to a traveller by no means an indifferent one, of entertainment at the inns.

One of the first towns in Holland visited by Mr. J. was the Briel; a place of 6000 inhabitants, and remarkable both as the scene of the earliest resistance to the Spanish yoke, and as being the birth-place of Van Tromp and several naval officers distinguished in the annals of Holland. The neighbouring town of Maesland Sluis is somewhat larger, and supports its inhabitants chiefly by the fisheries. Delft, an inland town, is more populous than either, containing 10,000 inhabitants; but, having no maritime trade, and its once flourishing manufacture of earthen ware being now in decay, it appears to a traveller remarkably dull. Schiedam, situated also in this part of Holland, is remarkable for its extensive distilleries of the liquor so well known among us by the name of Hollands; while the neighbouring town of Overschie is appropriated to a manufacture in which the Dutch are greatly behind us, that of hardware.

The Canals in Holland. — Mr. J. adopted early the plan of travelling by canals, and gives a very clear description of those intersections of the land, to which, and to her navigable rivers, Holland was indebted for her early progress in trade. The water in the canals is confined by a dyke or mound, on each side, and is several feet higher than the level of the adjacent fields. The dyke is about 24 feet wide at the top, and slopes at an angle of nearly 45 degrees; the height varies from 12 to 15 feet; but the depth of water is in general only from 4 to 6 feet. The dykes of the canal are formed and kept in repair by interlacing quantities of willows with the earth, thus rendering the latter compact, and forming of the whole a standing wall. Along the top of the dyke, in general, is a road which would be ill fitted to support our heavy waggons, but to such hazard it is very seldom exposed, all weighty merchandise being conveyed by the canal-boats. As to the method of removing deposits of mud, — the canals, though tranquil in general, require occasional cleaning, which is performed by means of baskets fastened to the end of long poles. The contents of the baskets are emptied into boats, and part of them is converted into manure; but, when the deposit is of the nature of clay, it is common to mix it with sand, and make it into bricks. — The canal-boats travel always at the same rate, viz. about three miles an hour, and are drawn by a single horse, the movement along these quiet waters being easily effected as soon as an impulse is given to the boat.

As the canals are higher than the adjacent country, the passengers have an extensive command of the scenery, if that name can be given to a succession of views which are remarkably similar, each exhibiting the commodious but far from splendid mansion of the land-holder, the still plainer house and appendant buildings of the farmer, gardens filled with fruits and vegetables, and meadows well stocked with grazing cattle. The lively colors, with which the doors and windows of Dutch houses are painted, are pleasing for a time, but the similarity becomes tiresome. On the other hand, these rural districts are populous and well cultivated; they are uniformly level; and the boldest feature in the prospect is the number and height of the wind-mills, a necessary auxiliary in a country which has no water-falls, and where fuel is too dear to render steam-machinery profitable. It is by means of wind-mills that the fields in Holland, whenever they happen to be flooded, are cleared of the water, in the manner practised in the Isle of Ely and some parts of Lincolnshire.

The Towns of Holland; and their present State. — Of the different towns in this country, the most pleasant by far is the Hague; its buildings, its streets, and its squares, being all superior to the general taste of the age (the 17th century) in which they were constructed. The environs of the town partake, it is true, of the general flatness; but the lofty trees, with which they abound, afford a pleasing contrast to the nakedness of the rest of the country. The great deduction from the interest of the Hague is the want of activity, the shops being unfrequented by customers, and the streets and walks exhibiting but few passengers. This dulness prevails in some degree even in the season when the court and the parliament are transferred from Brussels to this place; the attendants of government in this country being maintained with an economy which forbids the exhibition of splendor.

Haarlem, so long noted for the bleaching of linen and the manufacture of thread, has decreased in population; and at present its only manufactures are cotton, linen, and silk, each carried on to a small extent. The cultivation of tulips, hyacinths, and other flowers, for which this place was formerly remarkable, is still kept up, but on a reduced scale. The organ of Haarlem is visited by every traveller: but it is rather an arduous attempt to climb the tower of the great church, — a height of 300 feet; though the view from it amply repays the toil of the ascent.

'The panorama (says Mr. Jacob) was fascinating, particularly on a day when the sun shone with more than usual brilliancy. The sea divided by the sand-hills from the lake of Haarlem, the fine country-seats, especially that of the Hope family, beneath my feet, and the beautiful flower-gardens in its vicinity, all appeared in the fore-ground; beyond it, the circle included most distinctly the city of Amsterdam, the large towns of Saardam, Alkmaar, Naarden, and many other places; whilst in the more distant horizon, in one quarter the city of Utrecht was visible, and, in the other, Rotterdam and Delft, with Leyden intervening. It certainly included within one view, (perhaps excepting that over London,) the richest, most populous, and most productive spot on the face of the globe.'

Amsterdam. — The ease with which passages are now performed in steam-packets will, probably, render a summer-excursion to Holland a more frequent object with our travelling countrymen. They will find Amsterdam no longer the mercantile capital of Europe, but interesting partly from the amount of its population, (still nearly 200,000,) and more from the peculiarity of its structure. It may be termed a city of large houses and narrow streets; at least with the exception of those streets which contain canals. The whole of the provinces of Holland and Zealand require defence against the sea: but at Amsterdam the tax is two-fold, for even the foundation of a dwelling must be obtained by artificial means, the ground being marshy; in consequence of which, the buildings are almost all founded on piles of 50 or 60 feet in length, driven into the earth by a machine till they rest on a hard substance. Each house requires 200 or more of these piles, the tops of which are all sawed so as to be exactly level and to receive a flooring of oak-timber, which is fastened on them by iron spikes. Notwithstanding these substantial precautions, the foundation has, in many instances, partially sunken, and the walls of the houses exhibit consequently more or less of inclination, so as to impress a traveller with the notion that many of them are insecure. In a city where building-ground is so scarce, house-rent is necessarily high, and squares or open places are not to be expected; but the canals in the principal streets are fortunately of sufficient width to answer the purpose of ventillation; and the poor of the city lodge not in petty buildings but in the cellars of the larger houses.

Amsterdam discovers in its general architecture very little taste, its churches and other public buildings being more remarkable for solidity than beauty. Among the larger structures are the house and warehouses of the East India Company, the Orphan House, and the French Catholic church: but the largest of all is the well-known Stadt-house, long used for the public offices of the city, but converted in 1808 into a palace. The furniture of this great mansion is more splendid than we might expect from Dutch simplicity;—marble fire-places, rich carpets, silk curtains, and variegated draperies, adorning all the great apartments; particularly the chief saloon, which is a hall worthy of a royal residence, being 120 feet in length, 56 in breadth, and 98 in height. The trade of Amsterdam is now sadly fallen from the activity of former ages. The Swedes, the Danes, the Americans, and, above all, the English, have superseded the Dutch as the carriers of Europe: while the whale and herring fisheries, the nurseries of those hardy mariners who in the seventeenth century vanquished the Spaniards and contested with us the empire of the sea, have now ceased to be profitable, and are in a great measure relinquished. For manufactures, Amsterdam was never adapted; the high rate of house-rent and fuel, with the want of waterfalls, being altogether adverse to such undertakings. As to water, the canals of this city being brackish, each house is provided with a cistern, into which is conveyed all the rain that falls on the roof: but, after several weeks of drought, farther supplies are necessary, and are obtained from boats, which are made water-tight, and convey fresh water from the river Vecht, six or seven miles distant from the city.

From Amsterdam Mr. Jacob proceeded to Utrecht, which he found a well-built town, the streets being regular, and the houses less antique than in several towns of Holland. The site of the town is somewhat higher than the country to the westward, and in the canals the water is considerably below the level of the streets; the air is pure and healthy, and the population is about 34,000. On proceeding farther southward, in the direction of Arnheim, the traveller discovers a gentle ascent in the ground, a less tardy course in the streams, and an increase in the size of the trees. The Rhine now opens to the view, and the road runs by its side along a natural terrace.

As to the expence of travelling, Holland is found to be nearly on a par with England whenever the canal-boat is exchanged for a land-carriage. This enhancement is a consequence of the heavy tolls, and of the not less heavy excise-dues on wine, coffee, and other articles consumed in inns. On quitting the Dutch provinces, the traveller finds a sensible reduction, whether his course be southward in the direction of Belgium, or eastward in that of Westphalia. The latter was adopted by Mr. J., who proceeded in the direction of Doesburg, Anhoft, Borken, Coesfeld, and Munster. The last is the capital of one of the departments in the new division of the Prussian territory: its population is nearly 20,000: its streets are well paved; and the outskirts are much improved by the demolition of the walls and the conversion of the moat into garden-grounds. The next place of consequence in Mr. J.'s tour was Osnabruck, containing about 9000 inhabitants, who are employed as during the last century in the manufacture of coarse linens, to which the place has given its name. Minden, the scene in 1759 of a conflict so glorious to our arms, is a place of nearly equal size, with lofty houses and narrow streets; and its fortifications have been of late greatly improved by the Prussians.

Mr. J. continues, in his journey through the Hanoverian and the Prussian territory, to give ample statistical notices, to which we should willingly draw the attention of our readers, did not this part of the subject more properly belong to the report which we are about to make of Mr. Hodgskin's travels. The route of Mr. H. is quitted by Mr. Jacob near the field of Lutzen; the scene of the victory and death of Gustavus Adolphus, and of the sanguinary but indecisive conflict between the French and the allies in 1813. Proceeding westward, he crossed the Saale; passed Weissenfels, a place with 5000 inhabitants; and advanced through a pleasant country to the larger and better built town of Naumburg. He next traversed a district intersected with deep ravines, and saw on the left the ground on which was fought, 14th Oct. 1806, the disastrous battle of Jena. At Weimar, he found an indifferently built town, but was gratified with the literary activity of the place, the extensive library of the Grand Duke, and his patronage of men of letters. This circumstance, joined to a reduction of his army, and an exemption of his subjects from the conscription, has rendered him highly popular, not only in the confined circle of his dominions but among the liberal-minded portion of the public throughout Germany.

In the farther progress of Mr. Jacob, the most striking object that met his observation was the town of Gotha, the capital of the duchy of Saxe-Gotha, with a population of 11,000. It is built round a hill, towering above a beautiful country; and, as the ducal palace stands still higher, the aspect of the whole to an approaching traveller is particularly gratifying. — Hence Mr. J. proceeded to a very different scene; to the poor and elevated country of Hesse-Cassel; his route through which was occasionally picturesque, but enlivened by few towns, until he exchanged the chilly air of the mountains for the genial warmth of the valley of Hanau. Here he again entered on the comforts of polished society, and found a town superior to most places in Germany.

Passing over Frankfort and Mentz, cities too well known to require description, we shall take leave of Mr. J. when he enters the French territory along the banks of the Moselle and the frontier of Lorraine; a district little visited indeed by travellers, but well known in military history. The country in this direction is mountainous: but, the fortified towns being comparatively few, it was here that the Duke of Marlborough endeavored to make his way into France in the campaign of 1705; an attempt from which he was obliged to desist, partly by the skill of his opponent, (Marshal Villars,) but more by the tardiness of his German auxiliaries. His career of triumph, however, was only suspended; for he moved towards Belgium, where in the succeeding year the battle of Ramillies, the most complete perhaps of all his victories, opened to him an entrance to a much more fertile province.

Mr. Jacob being engaged at the time of his journey in agricultural pursuits, he has appropriated a large proportion of his volume to observations on that subject; and those among our readers, who have referred to the great body of evidence appended to the Agricultural Report of 1821, will recollect that he was called to give his testimony at considerable length before the Committee. His remarks bore chiefly on the state of husbandry in the north of Germany, the extension of tillage that had taken place since 1792, and the price at which corn can be raised on the Continent. Since that time, finding, like so many others, that agriculture is unprofitable, he has given a different direction to his labors, and, during the last year or two, has acted as secretary to the Commission on the state of the Public Boards in Ireland.

If it be asked what is the principal object of this book, we shall answer, it is rather to exhibit a series of detached observations than to generalize, or to support any new system, whether in religion, government, or political economy. Mr. J. is a deliberate writer, possessed of extensive knowlege; and, if his work contains occasionally an error, (as when he values (p. 17.) the Dutch guilder at 2*s.* instead of 1*s.* 7*d.*) or if it be deficient in the animation of style which is necessary to render it generally interesting, it will nevertheless be valued by the statistical inquirer, and be deemed intitled to a respectable rank as a collection of materials.

ART. IV. *Travels in the North of Germany*, describing the present State of the Social and Political Institutions, the Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, Education, Arts, and Manners in that Country; particularly in the Kingdom of Hannover. By Thomas Hodgskin, Esq. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 1007. 1*l*. 4*s*. Boards. Hurst and Co.

IN our preceding report of the work of Mr. Jacob, we took occasion to notice the advantage to a traveller of visiting a country for the second time, and of being thus enabled to mark the changes that had occurred in the intervening period. This advantage was not possessed by Mr. Hodgskin, who is not an "elder in years," and who now comes for the first time before the public in the capacity of a writer: — but, on the other hand, his progress bore all the marks of the activity of vigorous health; for he had traversed, with the leisure and minute observation of a pedestrian, a part of France, Italy, and Swisserland, before he entered on the country described in these volumes; and he prolonged his stay in Germany, with the double view of acquiring the language and collecting statistical information. The first part of the work relates his tour and personal adventures; while the second and larger portion conveys the result of his observations and reflections. These embrace a variety of topics; — the territorial aspect, the political constitution, and the financial resources of the different states, the condition of agriculture and manufactures, and, finally, the education, private life, and morals of the people.

Though the views of Mr. H. were more particularly directed to Hanover, many of his observations are applicable to the centre and the north of Germany generally; a region with which our commercial connection is not great, and whither our countrymen, who visit the Continent in the capacity of travellers, repair less frequently than to the Rhine, Swisserland, or Italy. — Bohemia, the first state mentioned by Mr. H., is naturally fertile, but backward in point of civilization and comfort, to a degree that an Englishman who has not visited the Continent can hardly deem possible. Most of the travellers in that kingdom, whether mechanics or petty dealers, are pedestrians; and, as they are too poor to pay for beds, the innkeepers are in the habit of providing nothing but straw for their repose. This is strewed in the public room of the inn, which at night is lighted by a three-cornered lamp suspended from the ceiling, and is similar to those primitive contrivances for the distribution of light which are seen in old pictures; and the motley groupe thus rendered visible presents an appearance which reminds a traveller at one time of a company of pilgrims, at other times of banditti.

The towns in Bohemia are much on a par with the inns; containing, in general, a square or market-place, with a town-house on one side, and in the middle a gilt cross, or column composed of three smaller columns twisted together, as an emblem of the Trinity. From these scenes of poverty, so similar to those which we witness in Ireland, the traveller experiences a pleasant relief on reaching Saxony. Its capital, Dresden, can indeed boast of few buildings of note: but it is, on the whole, a pleasant and even elegant town. One great part of its attraction consists in the beauty of its situation, the Elbe flowing here so smoothly as to resemble a lake more than a river; and the gentle hills, which rise in the north and south, placing the city in a long oval vale. The walks, the public gardens, and the well-cultivated environs, have all a pleasing effect; while the mountains of Bohemia, seen at a distance, add a grander feature to the scene.

Leipzic, the second town in Saxony, is not only inferior in beauty, but is inconveniently situated for trade, being without water-communication; and the roads leading to it are in general very indifferent. To what cause, then, is its commercial activity to be ascribed? To its central situation; and to the progressive effect of an old standing regulation, that all merchandise passing within sixty miles of the town should be carried through it, in order that the Leipzic merchants might have the first offer of purchase. Warehouses being once built, and capital fixed on the spot, this town acquired business, and continued the resort of merchants when the conveniences of its situation were surpassed by those of other places.

From Saxony Mr. H. travelled northward into the Prussian dominions; the scattered position of which led Voltaire to describe them, above half a century ago, as stretching along the map of Germany in a narrow line "like a pair of garters." Since those days, their length has considerably increased: but of their statistics a summary may be given in a few words. Their territorial extent (80,000 square miles) is equal to that of England and Scotland (distinct from Ireland), but the population is not above 10,000,000, and the revenue is somewhat under 7,000,000*l.* As to the capital, several of the cities of Europe contain more fine buildings than Berlin, but few exhibit so many collected within a small compass. The palace, the arsenal, (a very handsome edifice,) the library, the University, the Catholic church, the Opera-house, several elegant private houses, and a fine street, *Unter den Linden*, planted with rows of trees, (and at the end of which stands the beautiful Brandenburgh gate,) may all be seen from one spot; and by a slight change in the position of the spectator. The population of Berlin is on the increase, and is likely to amount in a few years to 200,000; an augmentation to be ascribed to the influx of those whom Mr. St. Gray calls "immigrants," or in other words to settlers from the country; since, unlike the majority of towns in England, the number of deaths is such as to exceed by more than 1000 the annual births. Mortality takes place, as in Paris and other continental cities, chiefly among children.

Potsdam is a well-built place, with streets at right angles, and containing not less than eight royal residences: in addition to which it has a building for a truly Prussian object, viz. a hall of great dimensions for the purpose of exercising soldiers in rainy weather. Here is also what Mr. Hodgskin terms a 'magnificent canal,' which extends the water-communication from the Elbe to Berlin. — Wittemberg, the cradle of the Reformation, is, we are sorry to add, in a decaying state, although favorably situated on the Elbe. Its once celebrated University, the scene of the labors of Luther and Melancthon, has been lately suppressed. This circumstance leads us to make a few remarks on the present mode of conducting

Education in Germany. — Of the different Universities in Germany, Göttingen is the best endowed, although the total annual fund for the stipends of the professors, the repair of buildings, and the purchase of books, does not exceed 11,000*l.* per annum. Here are no colleges of massy structure, no common tables, and few public halls: but the students lodge and board where they please, and generally receive instruction by lecture at the houses of their respective professors. The rule of most governments in Germany renders a course of study during three years, at an University, a necessary preliminary to official employment. The young lawyer attends lectures on jurisprudence; the medical and theological students follow the classes connected with their respective professions; and other branches, such as statistics, geography, and general history, may or may not be cultivated, at the option of the pupil.

Of the income of the professors, a part arises from fees and a part from a fixed salary; and although articles of provision and clothing are not above a third cheaper in Germany than in England, the difference of expence is much greater in consequence of the plainer habits of the people. One of the prominent characteristics of these public lessons is their minuteness; the manner of the professor being more like that of a school-master repeating a string of petty details to his hearers, than that of a philosophic teacher giving hints to be adopted and expanded by his pupils. The popular professors hold three or four classes daily, and the fee in each class is nearly a guinea per head for the course: each lecture lasts an hour; and the delivery of the professor, slow and inanimate as it generally is, has at least the merit of distinctness.

Historical writing has become an object of attention in Germany during the last half century, or rather since the year 1760; when the improving examples of Voltaire, Hume, and Robertson, began to introduce a better taste into such compositions. It is more common in Germany than elsewhere to divide and subdivide historical labor according to the subject; and to give separate narratives of ecclesiastical affairs, of a particular war, or of the progress of learning and the arts. Elegance and animation are seldom the characteristics of the authors of that country: but in careful and long continued research they are not often surpassed. In political affairs, the Germans, having as yet had so limited an experience, are little more than theorists. One general characteristic of their books, as of their lectures, is prolixity; arising from a belief on the part of the authors that they have never said enough while they can say any thing more; — *dum quid restaret dicendum.* Every page, we might almost say every paragraph of German composition partakes more or less of this feature; whether the work be a poem, a novel, an historical narrative, or a philosophic treatise.

Academical studies can, of course, occupy but a small portion of the public attention; and, as politics possess little attraction in the absence of representative assemblies, the Germans have given a different direction to their favorite pursuit. Music is the grand object of interest, the point to which the talents of the community at large are directed; and hence the number of eminent composers whose names are familiar to us in this country, and the still greater number of teachers who seek a livelihood in Holland and the adjacent parts of France.

State of productive Industry: Manufactures. — Woollens are made in Germany to a considerable extent, as far at least as they are requisite for home-consumption. Export is little contemplated; and we may remark, generally, that in many parts of this country, or in the smaller towns of France, the inhabitants transact business by a kind of barter, endeavoring to supply their own wants, but having very little money for the purchase of foreign articles. The staple manufacture of the north of Germany is linen; the value of which, according to the quantity annually made in Silesia, amounted twenty years ago to nearly 2,000,000*l.* sterling; but it has since experienced considerable diminution in consequence chiefly of the augmented consumption of cotton. The manufacture of the latter is on the increase; but, while linen was made in detached cottages, and by families who gave half their time to the labors of the field, cotton requires an assemblage of persons in a town or factory; so that the individuals employed are different; and an increase of work in the one does not directly counterbalance a diminution of it in the other.

Wages. — Manufacturers being in general paid by the piece, the amount of their earnings fluctuates with the state of trade. In the case of mechanics, wages are nearly on a level with their rate in France, viz. from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 1*s.* 8*d.* per day, without victuals, or any additional allowance. In many parts, it is common for journeymen to board in the house of their employers; in which case their wages vary from 5*l.* to 10*l.* per annum, a humble allowance when compared to the rate of wages in England; but there is also a considerable difference in the efficiency of the individual. It has long been remarked of our neighbours the Dutch, that bodily exertion was little practised by those whose circumstances enabled them to avoid it: but the Germans are commonly regarded as a more active race; with what truth we leave our readers to judge from the following paragraph:

"In the course of the day I met a great many carriages and waggons going to Leipsic, and all the travellers, wrapped up in two or three great-coats, with their faces buried in caps and handkerchiefs, remained sitting in a sort of stupid indifference, just preserving animation enough to keep their tobacco burning, and their pipes from falling out of their mouths. Not one of them attempted to walk, though they might all have walked faster than their carriages, and might have kept themselves comfortably warm; but bodily exertion of all kinds is most certainly avoided by the richer classes of the Germans. This indolence may be partly accounted for thus; their sleeping-rooms are generally heated, and the feather-beds, which are used as covers, always kept me — though, whenever it was practicable, I stripped myself to my shirt — in a constant state of profuse perspiration. The Germans, in addition to covering themselves with these beds, very generally sleep in night-dresses of flannel. In fact, they take nothing off but their upper garments, which are not unfrequently exchanged for some sort of jacket or gown. The beds and the rooms together make a sort of sweating bath, more enfeebling, probably, than a frequent use of warm bathing. The effects on myself were always refreshing, but weakening; they did away stiffness and fatigue, but sleep did not give me strength; and it is probable that the effects are the same on the Germans, and even much more powerful. The body is kept in a state of languid health, but all that freshness and vigour of limb which belongs to youth and a hardy people are destroyed. The Germans have no need of exertion, which we find so necessary to promote perspiration, and therefore they have no wish for it, and do not take it. The character of men is the result of all they feel; and this state of the bodies of the Germans is undoubtedly a cause for some part of their character — for the placidness, stillness, and want of energy, which distinguish them from the other nations of Europe. It does not hinder them from thinking, writing, and compiling, day after day, week after week; in fact, it permits them to do all these more than any other people can, for they can do them constantly, and with little fear of injury to their health; but it deprives them of the need and of the wish for active exertion.'

We pass over that part of Mr. H.'s volume which relates to objects of secondary interest,—such as his notice of towns and districts in Hanover, — and must give our remaining space to a few remarks on the general character of his composition; which discovers in various passages the inaccuracy of an unpractised writer. Thus in point of language we have occasionally such strange phrases as (vol. i. p. 47.) 'a large quantity of men;' and with regard to the matter of the book a similar charge is in some measure applicable. In his statistical notices, Mr. H. has followed chiefly the work of Hassel, a German geographer, of no mean repute: but he has not bestowed the requisite care on the reduction of foreign measures into English. We were accordingly not a little surprized to find (vol. i. p. 19.) the extent of Saxony limited to 1352 square miles, which does not exceed the average size of an English county, when an inspection of the map exhibits an extent of fully 7000 square miles, a surface nearly equal to that of Wales. Errors like these form serious deductions from the value of the book, especially when aided by the limited interest of the subject. It is however *de bon augure* as to the author's future productions at a more mature age, for it is marked throughout by a decided disposition to impartiality, and a wish to direct the attention of the reader to objects of serious interest.

ART. V. *Transactions of the Association of Fellows and Licentiates of the King's and Queen's College of Physicians in Ireland.* Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 520. 14s. Boards. Dublin, Cumming; London, Longman and Co.

WE are glad that the associated physicians of Ireland continue their laudable exertions in the cause of medical science, and that the present volume contains, like the last, (see

Monthly Review, vol. xcviii. p. 414.) many excellent papers, although we consider it on the whole as somewhat inferior in merit to its precursor. We shall notice briefly each article of its contents.

A Pathology and Treatment of Fever, founded principally on Observations made during the Epidemic of the Years 1817, 1818, *and* 1819, by Robert Reid, M.D. — This paper, which is of considerable length, embraces a great variety of topics connected with fever, and appears to have been composed as a kind of sequel and illustration of an essay published by the author on Tetanus and Hydrophobia, and the classification of diseases: in which considerable importance is attached to the distinction of the nervous system into the three departments of cerebral, spinal, and ganglionic. Dr. Reid has assumed 'that fever arises from a cause acting directly against the functions of the nervous apparatus, destroying or impeding its influence, by which the balance throughout the entire frame is destroyed;' and he has entered into considerable hypothetical disquisition, in endeavoring to point out the symptoms which distinguish the affection of one part of the nervous system from that of another. He has even ventured to deduce from the state of the pulse a knowlege of the part which is the subject of disease. When the spine is affected, Dr. R. says, the wave of blood appears as if it struck the sides of an imperfectly filled artery. Our own experience does not enable us to corroborate this assertion; nor do we believe that those niceties in the examination of the pulse, which Dr. Reid has thus endeavored to revive, will ultimately prove of any practical benefit.

A reduced temperature of the body, in fever, is considered by the author as marking the existence of spinal affection; and he agrees with Dr. Cheyne in stating that this symptom afforded an unfavorable prognosis, during the late epidemic of Ireland. Many remarks are here made on the occurrence of papular eruptions, glandular swellings, and petechiæ, in that fever. In the treatment of the last of these symptoms, Dr. R. is friendly to venesection, purgatives, and sponging with diluted acids; and he is accustomed to apply leeches to those livid discolorations, which appear on the extremities as the sequel of petechiæ. From this mode of treatment he has derived much advantage; and he anxiously deprecates all heating applications.

The most interesting portion of the paper is that in which the author details the case of a man who died on the twenty-first day of fever, and in whom a considerable morbid alteration of the spinal cord was discovered. In the neighbourhood of the upper dorsal *vertebræ*, it was diminished to one-half of its diameter, for an inch and a half; and at the commencement of the *cauda equina* a considerable extravasation of black blood was found, occupying a space of about two inches.

In considering the best modes of destroying the matter of contagion adhering to clothes, Dr. R. suggests the employment of steam; and we agree with him in thinking that this method might be adopted with much advantage.

Dr. R. has introduced into his paper a very interesting document, namely, the general Report for the year 1818 of the House of Industry, Asylums, Hospitals, and Penitentiaries. During this period, 14,963 cases were admitted into the fever-wards; thus affording to the medical attendants a very wide field of observation.

Case of Hæmorrhage supposed to be from the Spleen, in consequence of Injury done to that Organ, by William Harrison, M. D. — In this interesting case, above four quarts of bloody liquid were discharged from the stomach and bowels, subsequently to a fall from a horse. Although there was injury in the region of the spleen, we doubt much whether the hæmorrhage arose from effusion of blood into the stomach from the *vasa brevia*, as the author has supposed; and we are inclined to believe that the extravasation took place into the cavity of the intestines, most probably into the duodenum. We have seen a somewhat similar discharge of bloody fluid from the bowels, occurring a short time previous to the fatal termination of ascites.

Cases of Eruptive Diseases, by Samuel Robinson, M. D. — A case of well marked variola occurred in the Bethesda Female Orphan School, which was followed by two cases of mild modified disease in children who had been vaccinated; and to these succeeded another case of variola. Neither of the two individuals, thus affected with variola, had ever gone through the cow-pox or the small-pox. In order to ascertain the security produced by cow-pox, Dr. R. inoculated, with matter from the second variolous case, thirty young persons; of whom eighteen had been vaccinated, some six, others sixteen years before. Nine had suffered the natural small-pox, and three had been inoculated. In none of these cases did any eruptive disease follow: nor was any local or constitutional affection produced, excepting a small sore with slight inflammation on the punctured part. Dr. R. entertains the most perfect confidence in the security arising from vaccination, and goes even so far as to say that variolous disease occurring after successful vaccination is never dangerous. We believe that it is very rarely of that description.

Case of Idiopathic Emphysema, by Richard Stanley Ireland, M.D. — The emphysema in this instance appears to have arisen from the rupture of an air-vesicle in the lungs, during a fit of coughing. The body was not inspected after death.

On Affections of the Cranial Brain, occurring in Infants; by Whitlock Nicholl, M.D. — *Case of Erethismal State of the Brain*, by the Same. — The former of these is a very excellent paper, and contains a clear and highly intelligent view of the several morbid states of the *encephalon* in infants: which are comprized by the author under the following denominations, — *Erethism, Plethora, Inflammation, Congestion*, and *Torpor*. Perhaps, however, improvements might be suggested in the nomenclature thus adopted, and either Plethora or Congestion be expunged from the list. Erethism is distinguished into the sensitive and torpid, and presents some points of alliance with the *Delirium tremens* of Dr. Sutton. During the existence of sensitive erethism,

> ‘The child is wakeful, restless, attentive to every sound, and to every object of sight; irritable in temper; the retina is highly sensible to light; the pupil generally more or less contracted; the limbs much in action; the head suddenly moved about, or shaken from side to side; and a degree of animation and a quickness of observation are present, much beyond what is commonly seen in children of the same age; so that, although a morbid condition of the cranial brain be present, the infant may be considered as particularly healthy, on account of its being lively, and sensible to the most trifling impression. By an attentive observer other symptoms may be noticed; the child starts when asleep; when awake, a sudden frown passes over the forehead, and then disappears; the eyes are sometimes closed irregularly, or alternately; a winking of one eye, or of both eyes, may sometimes be detected; the hand is often carelessly passed over the forehead, or over the side of the head; the child cries without any evident cause, at other times it shrieks; the fists are clenched; the fore-arms bent upwards on the arms.’

Torpid erethism, on the other hand, is marked by ‘a great want of animation, the child being dull, yet fretful if roused; the head, perhaps, being suffered to droop, or being reclined on either side, there being an absence of sleep, a state that can scarcely be called waking; an indisposition to move; an indifference towards all objects; a general pallor and chilliness of the body; a dull state of the eyes; a rolling or turning up of the eyes; a plaintive moan, or occasional skriek;

the child awaking from sleep with a note expressive of pain or of displeasure; a wrinkled state of the integuments of the forehead; the hands raised towards the head; the pupil more or less contracted; there being apparently no notice taken of any object of sight; the body and lower extremities being, perhaps, extended; the head thrown backwards.'

Sedatives and anodynes, more especially the Dover's powder, are recommended by Dr. Nicholl in the erethismal states of the brain. The symptoms and diagnosis of the several morbid conditions of the encephalon are stated in a very masterly manner, and so as to prove of practical benefit in the treatment of infantile diseases. The sympathetic effects produced on the brain by irritation of the mucous membrane of the stomach and bowels, and of the auxiliary viscera, are ingeniously referred by Dr. N. to stimulation of the *anti-cerebral* extremities, or ultimate terminations, of the nerves of those parts. — In considering the mode of cure in cases of torpor of the brain, he judiciously recommends a varied treatment, corresponding to the causes which have given rise to the disease, and to the existing state of the frame. Among other remedies, he enumerates a strong infusion of green tea.

An interesting case of spinal paralysis with convulsive spasms in an adult is subjoined to this paper. Venesection was productive of increase of symptoms; and a cure was effected by counter-irritation to the spine, opiates, diaphoretics, purgatives, and diuretics, followed by the use of tonic remedies.

In the second of these papers, the subject is brought again under review, and the details of a case are given in which pure erethism of the brain existed, 'unmixed with the slightest perceptible alteration in the state of the blood-vessels, and alternating with a more torpid state, which is the consequence of the previous highly sensitive condition.'

Case of Amputation at the Hip-Joint, for the Removal of an Osteo-sarcomatous Tumour, by Richard Carmichael, surgeon, &c. — This was a very formidable and enormous tumour of the whole thigh; and a very accurate engraving of it accompanies the case. The operation was performed with much boldness and dexterity: but the disease had already made too extensive a progress to be removed, even by amputation at the hip-joint. The patient went on tolerably well till the evening of the fourth day, when alarming symptoms shewed themselves, and she died on the sixth. On examining the amputated limb,

'The fibrous structure of the muscles of the limb covering the diseased mass, which formed the tumour, was scarcely discernible.

so attenuated were they by the pressure of the morbid substance which lay between them and the bone. This substance was of different degrees of consistence: in most places it exhibited a semi-cartilaginous appearance and hardness; while in others it was of a gelatinous structure, resembling boiled glue when congealed; the latter entirely occupied the cavity of the knee-joint. — Interspersed through the morbid substance above the joint were several cavities, each containing from half an ounce to an ounce and a half of a glairy gelatinous fluid; and in dissecting the tumour, the knife frequently struck against spiculæ of bone, which were afterwards found to radiate in considerable masses from the femur. — This bone exhibited a white, rough, diseased, appearance, denuded of periosteum from its lower extremity to the lesser trochanter.

'Upon examining the stump, which was done by separating the flaps that had united through their entire extent externally, a large spongy mass, not unlike a piece of unhealthy lung, presented itself. On cutting into it we ascertained that it was the divided muscles which were thus strangely altered in so very short a space of time; for during the operation they presented a healthy appearance.'

Account of a Case of Cynanche Laryngea, in which the Operation of Tracheotomy was performed with Success; and of a Case of Abscess between the Œsophagus and Cervical Vertebræ, obstructing Deglutition and Respiration, in which the same Operation was unsuccessful; with Remarks on the appropriate Treatment of similar Cases, by Richard Carmichael.

Report of the South Fever Asylum, Cork, from its opening, December 5th, 1817, *to its Close, March 25th*, 1819, by William Pickels, M. B. — We are here presented with an account of the results of the author's professional experience during the prevalence of epidemic fever in Ireland. He estimates the number of persons who sickened under this disease in Cork at 16,884, out of a population of 80,000; and the total number of patients received into the South Fever Asylum was 3009, of whom 117 died, giving a proportion of 1 in 25, — certainly a very moderate rate of mortality. During the winter and spring months, the head and chest appeared to be the principal seats of local affection: but, during the autumn, the biliary organs were those which chiefly suffered. In many cases, the disease terminated by a paroxysm of intermittent fever. — The other diseases which prevailed at the same time were small-pox, measles, dysentery, and aphthous sore throat. — The treatment employed by Mr. P. appears not to have been very active, but on that account probably was the more successful. Blood-letting was not frequently adopted; and the good effects of wine and punch are stated by him in strong terms. The contagious nature of the fever is admitted, and evidence of the fact given; but damp, filth, and defective ventilation are enumerated as exciting causes, while famine is regarded as the predisposing cause. Such was the general misery in Cork, that no small vigilance was required to defeat the endeavors of the poor wretches who sought admittance into the Asylum under the pretence of fever, for the purpose of obtaining a bare subsistence. Several revolting instances of inhumanity to persons laboring under disease are given by the author; — and the deplorable superstition of the vulgar is said to have led them to view the devastating epidemic as a manifestation of Divine wrath, on account of the ascent of Mr. Saddler in his balloon! — This paper is drawn up in a plain distinct manner, presenting a lively and interesting picture of the disease in question: but, as a literary production, it is liable to many critical objections.

Case of Gangrene, occasioned by the Use of Mercury. By Richard Grattan, M.D. — The case here detailed was one of slow fever, with affection of the head, threatening effusion into the ventricles of the brain. By means of mercury, and other remedies, it was apparently subdued: but, after the child had taken a scruple of calomel in small doses, profuse ptyalism came on, and in four or five days subsequently a gangrenous ulceration commenced at the angle of the mouth, which in eight days destroyed the patient. This disease appears to have had some characters in common with canker of the mouth, which is known to occur very frequently among the children of the poor, and to resist in many instances every remedy. — The most fastidious medical critic, we think, cannot impute blame to Dr. Grattan for his mode of treating this case, and all must agree in praising the candid spirit in which he has laid the details before the public.

A well-marked Case of Liver-Cough, with some Cases and Observations tending to show how frequently the Lungs and other Viscera sympathize with Derangements in the Liver, whether Organic or Functional. By William Brooke, M.D., &c. — From this well detailed report, we learn that the case was ultimately treated by means of mercury, followed by purgatives, and the disease was completely cured. Allusions to other cases are also made; and, towards the close of the paper, the author points out some important diagnostic marks of the *hepatic* cough:

> ‘It is uniform, harsh, unaccompanied with pain in the chest, and in general is dry, and then without difficulty of breathing or dislike to the recumbent posture: when there is any expectoration, the matter rejected is scanty and viscid, and never I believe tinged

with blood. This cough does not fatigue the patient as might be expected, and is chiefly troublesome during the day, particularly after meals.' (P. 266.)

Case of Melæna. By Whitlock Nicholl, M.D. — The complaint was successfully treated by the spirit of turpentine.

Case of ruptured Vagina, which terminated favourably, notwithstanding the Strangulation and subsequent Sloughing of a considerable Portion of the Intestinal Canal. By Thomas M'Keever, M.D. — The vagina appears to have been injured during the extraction of the child by means of the crotchet, the pelvis being deformed. Three feet eleven inches of intestine separated by sloughing, and an unnatural anus remained in the vagina. Nothing is said by the author respecting the formation, in this case, of an urinary vaginal fistula: but we have no doubt that this did actually take place, for he states, towards the close of the case, that the urine as well as the fæces passed involuntarily from the vagina, and 'that a piece of membrane thickly studded with sandy matter about nine inches in length and four in breadth had come away.' (P. 290.) In tracing the history of fistulous openings between the urinary bladder and the vagina, we have ascertained that the slough taking place in such lesions presents the appearance here described.

Case of diseased Heart in a Patient who had suffered severely from acute Rheumatism. By Daniel Falloon, M.D. — Although this case was in a very advanced and almost hopeless state when it came under Dr. F.'s care, he was enabled to give the patient great relief, and to delay the fatal termination for many months by the frequent abstraction of blood in small quantities, by low diet, and by the administration of purgatives and diuretics. After death, the cavity of the pericardium was found obliterated, excepting when the heart rests on the diaphragm. The cavities of the heart were dilated, and its walls increased in thickness; that organ having acquired about three times its natural size. When washed and dried, it weighed 34 ounces. All the valves of the heart are stated to have been healthy, excepting one of the semi-lunar, the edge of which was considerably elongated, thickened, and beset with warty excrescences containing earthy matter. — In considering the details of this case, we have been unable to discover any marked connection between the disease of the heart and the occurrence of rheumatism, under which the patient appears at one time to have suffered severely.

One of Dr. F.'s prescriptions is an extraordinary combination of mint-water, sulphate of magnesia, carbonate of magnesia, vinegar of meadow-saffron, and laudanum; and his mode of directing venesection to be performed, if not very consonant to grammar, has at least the merit of novelty. '℞. V. S. ad ℥xii.—℥xvi. e parvo orificio.' (P. 301.) This error, although frequently repeated, may possibly be that of the printer; for, we are sorry to say, the inaccuracies of the press in the volume before us are extremely numerous.

Case of Recovery from the Effects of Corrosive Sublimate. By Charles Lendrick, M.B., &c.—This was a case of poisoning by the wife of the patient, and her son by a former marriage. An emetic was exhibited, and afterward whites of eggs, with evident benefit: but a slight degree of paralysis of the right side, with nervous irritability, attended by some loss of memory, remained after recovery.

Medical Report of the Fever-Hospital, Cork-Street, Dublin, for the Year ending 4th January, 1819. By Richard Grattan, M.D.—The author of this paper has entered at some length into the history of the origin and progress of the Irish epidemic, and into the consideration of the causes which are believed to have produced it. The degraded state, the sufferings, and the privations of the lower classes in Ireland, are very judiciously regarded as peculiarly favorable to the developement and diffusion of epidemic fever. Dr. G. is a firm believer in the contagious nature of the disease, but is convinced of the frequent spontaneous origin of febrile contagion; and his reasoning on this subject is at once ingenious and conclusive. He has also indulged himself in devising means for ameliorating the condition of the lower ranks of his countrymen; and he seems to rest with peculiar satisfaction on the taxation of absentees, and the employment of the fund thus created in the establishment of schools and the distribution of premiums to deserving tenantry.

Dr. Grattan has occupied a considerable portion of his report in discussing the opinions of those who regard fever as a local disease, and more especially of Dr. Clutterbuck, on whose work he has made some very sensible criticisms. He remarks that

> 'The doctrine which teaches that fever is a disease of the nervous system, and at the same time admits that this diseased action does often occasion local inflammation, seems to be nearer to the truth than if we were to ascribe fever to either of these causes exclusively. It embraces the advantages of both theories, and in a practical point of view comprehends every case of fever, and every variety of treatment which can be employed in its management. From an attentive consideration of the subject, and from such observations as I have been able to found on my own experience,

rience, I can affirm, that it leads to the most successful practice in the fever which now prevails in Ireland, and which is identical in its nature and symptoms with the ordinary fever that has always existed in this country.'

Under these impressions of the nature of fever, we could not expect the author to be friendly to the free use of blood-letting in that disease: but even in cases of complication with inflammatory affection, he appears to have had recourse to the lancet very sparingly; for the quantity of blood directed by him to be drawn was sometimes three ounces, usually four or five, and appears never to have exceeded eight. He has presented us with a tabular view of the fever-cases of a complicated nature, which came under his care during the year 1818; and, to enable us to judge of the reliance that may be placed on the inferences which he has drawn, he has made the following statement:

'The physician, in his prescription-book, enters under the name of each patient the remedies prescribed for him during his continuance in the hospital, so that, by a reference to these prescriptions, the general character of the disease can be at once ascertained. The manner in which each case terminates is also accurately noted, and in this way it immediately appears whether the remedies prescribed have been successfully employed or not.

'When the patient recovers, and is dismissed cured, we may presume that his treatment has been judicious, as it is, in general, only in those cases in which death takes place that the propriety of the practice can be questioned.'

To the closing remark now quoted we cannot assent, for it is certain that febrile disease will often baffle the most able treatment; while, on the other hand, patients sometimes recover under circumstances of management by no means judicious.

Exclusive of the more simple cases of fever, all of which we presume recovered, there occurred during the year 544 cases, in which fever was complicated with local disease. In 316, the chest was affected; in 268, the head; and in 15, the abdomen: of these, 32 died. A brief and sometimes not very satisfactory detail of each of the fatal cases is given; but no account of the appearances on inspection after death in any of them. In the treatment of the Irish epidemic, the author was much in the practice of exhibiting calomel, usually in combination with ipecacuanha, and sometimes with antimonial powder. He entertains a high opinion of the efficacy of calomel, and even speaks of it as the West India practitioners formerly did when recommending its employment in yellow fever. 'The moment,' he says, 'the mouth is rendered sore, the symptoms become less violent, and the patient thenceforth gradually recovers. To this rule there are, no doubt exceptions.' (P. 442.) The value of opium in the treatment of fever is duly appreciated by Dr. G.; and he adds his testimony in favor of the oil of turpentine, where any pain of the abdomen exists, accompanied by fulness and tension, even although these symptoms should be combined with a relaxed state of the bowels.

Medical Report of the Fever-Hospital and House of Recovery, Cork-Street, Dublin, for the Year ending 1st January 1820. By John O'Brien, M.D., &c.—Dr. O'Brien has here presented us with a brief but interesting view of the rise, progress, and decline of the Irish epidemic; and has detailed at some length the results of his practice during the year 1819. He is considerably more liberal in his employment of venesection than Dr. Grattan, whose report for the preceding year we have just considered; but he has exhibited much discrimination and sound judgment in the use of the lancet, and is by no means a convert to the depleting system in that extreme degree which some persons have of late advocated. The free evacuation of the contents of the alimentary canal is regarded by him as of primary importance; after which, he recommends the keeping up a gentle action by means of calomel combined with antimonial powder, and sometimes with the compound powder of ipecacuanha; but, in the second stage, he prefers the employment of *enemata* for that purpose; and in this period he has found much advantage from wine and other stimulants. Our own experience in the treatment of the late epidemic fever, in this country, leads us to coincide with Dr. O'Brien in believing that it demanded a great variety of remedy, that little confidence was to be placed in any attempts to cut it short, and that the principal object was to conduct the patient in safety through the disease. During the year 1819, 3921 patients were admitted into the Cork-Street Fever-Hospital: of whom, together with the patients remaining in the house at the commencement of the year, 3840 were discharged cured, and 226 died. The proportion of deaths is stated to have been 1 in $18\frac{29}{226}$. In the preceding year, the average rate of mortality in the same hospital is estimated by Dr. Grattan at 1 in 30. The rate of mortality in Stevens's hospital, during the same period, is marked in the table given by that gentleman as 1 in 50. It seems distinctly proved that the epidemic was proportionally less fatal than the common fever of the country, perhaps partly in consequence of many famished wretches not affected with fever having obtained admission into the hospitals: but we feel altogether at a loss to understand how the mortality in any hospital can be so low as 1 in 50; when we know that in cities it is usually from 1 in 19 to 1 in 28 for the whole population; and in country districts from 1 in 45 to 1 in 56.

Dr. O'Brien has considered, at some length, the opinions of those who regard fever as identical with some one of the phlegmasiæ, and has given his decided negative to this hypothesis: but he believes that inflammation is an almost constant concomitant of fever, though it is rather of a passive than an active character, and is the consequence, not the cause, of febrile action. Our opinions on this subject are rather adverse to those of Dr. O'Brien: but, without entering farther into the discussion, we would merely state that a conviction of the topical nature of fever is neither inconsistent with a belief in contagion, nor does it necessarily lead to the excessive adoption of general blood-letting.

ART. VI. *Essays on Petrarch*. By Ugo Foscolo. Royal 8vo. pp. 325. 12s. Boards. Murray. 1823.

It is known to most of our readers that the distinguished foreigner, whose name appears at the head of these Essays, has long been a resident among us; so long, it would seem, that he is become ambitious of assuming a sort of rank in the number of our native writers. As to the motives which first led him, in common with a few of Italy's best friends and patriots, to seek an asylum in a land of comparative safety and freedom, — the only advantage now afforded by England to the oppressed freemen of the world, and denied even to some of them, — we have no business here to inquire into them; any more than into his checkered and adventurous life, throughout a long professional, military, and literary career. These matters have already been discussed at some length, and chiefly we believe by the same hand, in many of our contemporary journals, so as to leave little that is either novel or interesting to be added to the account.

Waiving, therefore, all farther inquiries into his previous life and labors, we propose to confine our attention to the latest of his productions, now before us, and to the more curious and interesting points arising out of the subject; which is every way congenial to his taste and talents, and on which his ample stores of erudition have not been bestowed in vain. Accordingly, it is treated in the style of a master; whose profound and accurate acquaintance with all its bearings has enabled him to present us with those higher views, objects, and results, which we must in vain have sought from the pen of a less eloquent and learned commentator on Petrarch. To superficial judges and readers, indeed, the work may appear to differ little from many of the common-place labors which have preceded it, because few new facts or discoveries are announced, which would form the chief claim to favor in *their* eyes. Such persons, we doubt not, will be led to pronounce idly and slightingly, because ignorantly, on the very superior productions of Ugo Foscolo, and perhaps with as little consideration as on any of the very slenderest essayists of our day.

For our own part, if we have any acquaintance with the writings of Petrarch and of Foscolo, we have reason to believe that the *learned*, not less than the desultory and polite, readers of the age will feel themselves much interested in these additional observations and researches, from one who has uniformly devoted his talents to high and important objects, with equal ability and success. Yet we consider this last as by no means one of the most arduous and laborious of the author's efforts; whose more recondite and bold inquiries into classical and antiquarian subjects have obtained for him a high scholastic reputation both in this and his native land. We shall particularize only his edition and restoration of portions of the works of the great Italian commander Monticuculi, and his own Greek and Latin pieces; without mentioning his lighter and more popular productions, — his novels, tragedies, orations, and lectures; with which last he is at this time endeavoring to inspire a British audience with fresh relish and admiration for the poets of Italy, in the language of the country itself. The whole of these we must dismiss with a mere reference to their existence, in proof of the energetic and persevering not less than the rich and versatile genius of their author.

We are not sorry to observe the same generic traits, the same bold characteristics, which we have uniformly attributed to Signor Foscolo, as strongly manifested in these materials of an apparently slighter texture as in those of a more labored and durable composition which have preceded them. These qualities we are to consider, both in his prose and his poetic writings, as derived from the new school of Italian poetry, formed towards the close of the last century; and which, originating with Monti, Parini, and Cesarotti, was carried to its highest pitch, both in excellence and in defects, by the innovating genius (as it was termed) of Alfieri and his imitators: among whom Signor F. is the only one whose lofty genius and capacity, by a sort of natural affinity and resemblance, renders him deserving of being placed in competition with the poet of Asti. In the fire, the vigor, and the originality of his conceptions, — in the rapidity and variety of his feelings and imagination, — and in the closeness, the terseness, the abrupt transitions, and even the obscurity of his language, — he may be cited rather as a sort of rival than as a follower of Alfieri. Some of these qualities, indeed, are even more remarkable in the works of the present writer than in those of Alfieri himself; who often flags in his prose-writings to a degree of tameness and prolixity, from which the former is wholly free. In his public orations, delivered in Italy, — in his lectures, — in his patriotic addresses to his countrymen, — and in his critical and other essays, — as also in those that are now before us, — we every where discover the same deep-seated thoughts and feelings, expressed with the same vehemence, yet struggling, as it were, for utterance; together with the same striking antitheses, and finely contrasted but rapid allusions. No where, however, do we meet with a detailed analysis, or very full developement, either of his sensations or his ideas: but this conciseness doubtless arises in part from his desire of compressing as much as possible of his extensive learning, vivid feeling, and daring imagination, in the short space that by modern rules of publication is prescribed to him; and in part from his own theory, with his love of contrasted imagery and abrupt transitions, which cast an air of obscurity over his language that we doubt not is very perceptible in the original work, though it is disguised by the copious version and illustration of a translator in its English form, and by the last revision of the author. We need scarcely say that it can hardly be indebted for its present dress to the fashioning hand of a foreigner, although he may have acquired a tolerably good command of our language; and although no servile sound — no mention of *translation* — has been allowed to sully the beauty of the title-page.

That the work is thus rendered more intelligible and engaging in the eyes of English readers, we are well aware: but we are not so fully convinced of the propriety of altogether withholding the original Italian, in which we have reason to believe it was first composed. The author was quite at liberty to procure a version of his own production, if he pleased: but not, we think, to suppress the one and substitute the other, even without announcing that he did so, at his pleasure. Should our supposition be correct, then we have here in fact a changeling instead of the real offspring of the author's brain; and we are occasionally sensible, in perusing these pages, of the nicer transitions, connections, and agreements, both in the sense and the context, which we

know

know the fervent and impatient genius of the author himself is half inclined to hold in contempt, but which by less ethereal spirits "of earth's mould," and by most English ears and eyes, are deemed quite essential to the perfect comprehension of a subject. Whatever might be the degree of discrepancy between the two treatises, it can scarcely be alleged as a sufficient reason for the entire suppression of the Italian; which, to those who admire the writer's genius and language, and on so popular a subject, must have furnished a high treat, of no every-day occurrence. If it be urged that the Italian of Signor Foscolo would have been confined to a very select party of readers, — as little agreeable, perhaps, to the views of the publisher as to those of the Signor, — we do not admit even this as a justificatory plea for the absence of the original: unless, indeed, we are to suppose that no such original exists, and that the commentator dictated, like Julius Cæsar, to his secretary, in a strange tongue; combining his ideas, perhaps, in the Italian, and expressing them in the correct English which we here behold.

While the author has certainly attempted to give a popular air and character to his work, he has not left it deficient in any of the higher requisites which we had a right to expect from so learned a dissertator, on every point connected with the literary history of Italy. It will not; therefore, be too much to say that the whole of his subject is treated, if not uniformly in the most pleasing, always in the most satisfactory manner; and we have accordingly the most important as well as the finest traits and peculiarities of the lover, the bard, and the hermit of Vaucluse, every where delineated with a delicate and faithful hand. Amid the variety of clashing opinions and uncertain hypotheses, which have for ages so absurdly engaged the researches of contending critics and historians regarding the particular object, nature, and results of the poet's passion, — with the precise period, age, and degree of intimacy between the parties, — we are glad to perceive that Signor Foscolo retains his usual coolness of investigation and soundness of judgment; resting his authority, in the more doubtful points, on reason, probability, and even common sense. Thus the very prevalent idea of the Platonic theory, animating the whole body of the lover's poetry, having been extended to all his feelings and affections, seems to receive little countenance from the present essayist:

At first Petrarch saw in Laura only the most beautiful of women; one whom he was destined to love, and who inspired and ennobled his talents: he coveted glory only as it might secure her esteem and affection, and he hoped to have found happiness on earth. He next discovered in her the form and the virtue of an angel,—that his love burnt only to enlighten and purify his heart; to fix his mind; to harmonize those faculties, which would otherwise have been a prey to perpetual perturbation; to lift his desires and thoughts towards heaven: and that he might raise her above every earthly idea, he never explicitly mentions that she was bound to partake the bed of another. At last, however, he felt and confessed "that she was a woman; that he doated upon her form; that she was the only one who had ever appeared a woman in his eyes;"

> '*Chiare, fresche, dolci acque*
> *Ove le belle membra*
> *Pose colei che sola a me par Donna;*

and he was burning "with envy, jealousy, and love"—

> '*D'amor, di gelosia, d'invidia ardendo.*

He envied Pigmalion, "who could animate with soul and love the statue made by his own hands." But at the same time he seems not unaware that the fairest portion of his life was wasted in the superstitious worship of a deity, which possibly deserved to be cast down upon the earth, whence his fatal fancy had raised it. He calls "the loftiness of Laura, pride; and her aversion to every sort of baseness, affectation and prudery"—

> '*Ed in donna amorosa ancor m'aggrada*
> *Che'n vista vada altera, e disdegnosa;*
> *Non superba, o ritrosa:*
> *Amor regge suo imperio senza spada.*

The illusions of a pure passion are succeeded by the desires of an impatient love, which escape, in expressions and lines too plain to be quoted, and which are not ordinarily observed, because Petrarch is traditionally read with sentimental prepossession. He was admitted but rarely into the house of Laura, and not till several years after their first meeting. "I grow old," says he, "and she grows old: I begin to despond; and yet it appears to me that time wears away slowly, till we may be permitted to be together without the fear that we should be lost"—

> '*Ma sia che può; già solo io non invecchio.*'

In truth, the present author does not seem to have troubled himself much with the labors and inquiries of his predecessors in the same galant career. He makes no particular reference to the respective merits and defects of the various biographers and critics, English as well as foreign, with which the controversial world has so long abounded: but they are all dimissed with the same slight notice which we find bestowed on the works of Mrs. Dobson and the Abbé de Sade. He seems, however, to have made such historical use of them as he deemed fit,—to have subdued them, as it

were,

were, to his purpose, — and then, disdaining to enter into a contest in which more toil than triumph was to be expected, — to have left them to the repose of ages. We do not appeal from the wisdom of such a decision. Peace be to the ashes of them all, — of Madame Deshoulières, and the good Abbés Delille and de Sade; — of the Cardinals Sadoleto and Pobli; — of the learned Beccadelli and Tiraboschi; — and of the whole hosts of poets, antiquaries, and pilgrims, who have offered up the incense of their sentimental curiosity at the public shrine. It is nevertheless easy to perceive, though he declines argument, that the present writer differs very greatly in many points from the party of the French critics; whose inherent love of extravagance, intrigue, and rant, betrayed them into errors relative to the poet's real character and passion, from which the more pure and enlarged vision of Signor Foscolo is wholly free. — When we enumerate among these the opinions of a lady of the same nation, contained in the following extract, what degree of credit was the *spiritual* attachment of Petrarch likely to obtain in the judgment even of the most refined portion of the world?

‘ The notion, however, that Laura had not been always inexorable is equally popular, especially with that portion which is at once the less courted and the more alarmed of the fair sex. It has its foundation upon those romantic traditions also which poets and travellers are eager to adopt. The inhabitants of the neighbourhood of Vaucluse point out the height where Laura's chateau was situated, from which she could converse with her lover by signals. The Abbé Delille discovers the very grotto which afforded a secret retreat, and the tree which lent its shade to this happy couple.

‘ *Une grotte écartée avait frappé mes yeux :*
‘ *Grotte sombre, dis-moi, si tu les vis heureux?*
‘ *M'écria-je ! Un vieux tronc bordoit-il le rivage?*
‘ *Laure avait reposé sur son antique ombrage. —*
‘ Jardins, Chant 3.

‘ A lady goes still farther than the Abbé;

‘ *Dans cet antre profond, où, sans d'autre témoins,*
‘ *Laure sut par de tendre soins*
‘ *De l'amoureux Pétrarque adoucir le martyre;*
‘ *Dans cet antre où l'amour tant de fois fut vainqueur —*
‘ *Il exprima si bien sa peine, son ardeur,*
‘ *Que Laure malgré sa rigueur,*
‘ *L'écouta, plaignit sa langueur,*
‘ *Et fit peut-être plus encore.**

‘ * Madame Deshoulières, *Epître sur Vaucluse.*’

The view taken by Signor Foscolo, on the other hand, is at once more noble and charitable and more in unison with the tenor of the poet's own life and sentiments; while he candidly admits that Petrarch's 'own confession will never set this old question at rest.' The whole of the remarks, indeed, in his first essay, on the *Love* of Petrarch, seem dictated not less by candor than by feeling and reflection: its popular tone and manner are very happily reconciled with the depth and seriousness required in the critic and the scholar; and it is every way calculated to create fresh sympathy for the sufferings and passions, to which it represents the lover and the man of genius as a perpetual prey. In order to convey some idea of this essay in the writer's own words, we shall abstain from indulging ourselves in some remarks on Petrarch's peculiar genius, on his theory of love, and on the question how far the Platonic, the chivalric, and the Troubadour character prevailed in his amatory effusions, with which we had intended to preface our quotations from the work before us.

While the following extract explains the Platonic theory, it will serve to shew that the poet's love and sufferings were something more than Platonic:

"Each soul burns with the desire to find its companion; and, when they do meet together in their pilgrimage on earth, their love becomes so much the more ardent, because the matter by which they are enclosed prevents their re-union. On these occasions their pleasures, their sufferings, their ecstasies, are inexpressible: each endeavours to make itself known to the other; a celestial light burns in the eyes; an immortal beauty beams in the countenance; the heart feels less tendency to earth, and they mutually incite each other to the exaltation and purification of their virtue. In proportion as they love each other, they are lifted towards God, who is their common origin; and, in proportion as they feel the pains of their exile upon earth, and their captivity in matter, they desire to be freed, in order that they may unite eternally in heaven." — Now, since the whole system is founded on the hypothesis, "that each soul has a predestined sympathy towards one other soul only" — and since each person imagines, "that the being to whom he is attached is the most perfect," it follows, "that every Platonic lover ought to strive always to attain to the highest degree of moral perfection."'

Now behold the contrast:

'When night has closed around,
Yet has the wanderer found
A short but deep forgetfulness at last
Of every woe, and every labour past.

But ah! my grief, that with each moment grows,
As fast and yet more fast
Day urges on, is heaviest at its close.

As soon as his imagination was surrounded by silence and darkness, the very object which it had delighted to decorate and adorn during the day was clothed with terror, and he frequently saw Laura during the night and his limbs were chilled with fear. "I arose, trembling, with the earliest dawn to quit a house where every thing inspired me with terror. I climbed the heights, I trod the woods, looking on every side to see if the image which had disturbed my repose followed my steps: I could feel myself no where in safety." — This is a passage from one of his Latin works; and when he expresses the same in Italian, a single line is sufficient to touch the feelings of every reader, who has experienced violent passions in solitude,

'*Tal paura ho di ritrovarmi solo!*'

It is this method of illustrating the poet's real sentiments and character from his own productions, and applying an intimate acquaintance of the whole to every part, that constitutes the great merit of the work before us. It wears an air of reality and truth, — the impress even of the poet's own mind, — and thus creates an illusion which it is difficult to resist. If we are not to consider it as the poet's life, it certainly furnishes some of the most desirable materials for such a composition that we have yet seen, and exhibits the best plan of arranging, supplying, or disposing of any portion of historical information and facts. To this end the author's accurate memory and extensive reading have been applied with equal industry and success; and we are told that they are such as enabled him to turn to any portion of Petrarch's writings, even the very piece, stanza, and line, and thus quote it for his immediate purpose. His poetical illustrations are always equally correct and rich, seeming to flow naturally, like his eloquence, into the periods assigned to them: and it may be perceived, from the ensuing remarks on Petrarch's mistress, that the author knows how to avail himself of the English as well as of his native poets:

'Laura, independently of the influence of love, had over Petrarch that ascendancy which every person who acts invariably with calmness must acquire over impassioned characters. Her religious sentiments were marked by more serenity and confidence than those of her lover. In all her actions, her self-possession appears rather natural than forced. Her conversation is full of that sweetness, that discretion, and that good sense, which form a triumphant contrast with the enthusiasm of the poet. She always seems to think that modesty and her own esteem are the most beautiful ornaments of a woman. Petrarch speaks often of her noble birth; and from the costliness and elegance of her dress, it appears that she possessed a fortune equal to her rank. But she did not wish to live too much noticed in the world:

‘ *In nobil sangue vita umile e queta.*

Proud as she was of the affection she had deserved, and of the celebrity which it had given her,

‘ *Quel dolce nodo*
Mi piacque assai, ch' intorno al core avei,
E piacemi il bel nome,

she was more devoted to the cares of her family than to literature and poetry,

‘ *E non curò giammai rime nè versi.*

Her domestic situation, however, was not a happy one; for her husband, whom she made her heir, leaving to his care three sons and six daughters, married again in seven months, while he was still in mourning for her. Although Petrarch occasionally fancied it so strongly, as to make the readers of his poetry believe, that she really loved him, he is by far more explicit when he tells that it has ever been the only one impenetrable secret of the breast of Laura; and indeed she buried it with herself. The soft and pensive character of her countenance expressed a mind capable of suffering without complaining:

‘ *In aspetto pensoso anima lieta.*

We are sensible of exaggeration when Petrarch describes Laura as "sent upon the earth to assure mankind of the existence of the angels in heaven."

‘ *A far del Ciel fede fra noi;*

still if, as he often believed, a real passion preyed upon her heart, and she was making a daily sacrifice of herself and her lover to her duties, the persevering silence of Laura, and the alternate appearances of severity and fondness towards Petrarch, ought to be ascribed less to artifice than to her constant efforts to conceal feelings which she might apprehend dangerous to disclose, and which, at the same time, it was not in her power to conquer.— "Hence I console myself, and prefer sufferings for such a woman to the possession of any other:"

‘ *Pur mi consola, che morir per lei*
Meglio è che gioir d'altra.

‘ But this is the supposition of a lover; for passion and reason, though they at first meet in our minds as two friends, seldom reign together with equality of power; and, in a short time, the one must inevitably yield to the dictatorship of the other. That love should not have been, during twenty years, subdued by resolute virtue, nor virtue overpowered by love, is a phenomenon that can be conceived only as among the ideal possibilities of things. It seems, however, very consistent with the frequent contradictions of human nature to suppose, that Laura, without losing the man, cherished the passion she had inspired. There is a keen gratification in the consciousness of possessing charms that are fatal to their admirers; it tempts even the best-natured persons, because it is softened with a kind feeling of pity for the sufferers. Like Eve looking into the lake of Paradise,

> ' I started back;
> It started back: but pleased I soon returned;
> Pleased it return'd as soon with answering looks
> Of sympathy and love,

her daughters frequently delight to search in the heart of their lover for the reflection of their own image only. Enthusiasm for a distinguished man; need of sentimental diversions from the monotony of a lonely life; imperious necessity of being loved, which perhaps is the only pleasure constantly sought by men and women, and which is indispensable to the sex that stands naturally in need of the support of the stronger; and, lastly, the habitual sense of religion and modesty, strengthened by the fear of public opinion, and exalted by an earnest wish of perfecting the moral habits of their lover, and of changing their passion to a lasting friendship — all these sensations, and perhaps many more, acting at the same time, tempting and flattering each other, are so blended as to keep women in a condition of mind which they frequently mistake for a pure and serious attachment. Thus Laura's love

> "Was but a lambent flame which play'd about her breast."

For, shewing constantly a generous kindness to Petrarch, she never exposed her virtue, while by the best calculated diplomacy of coquetry, without once committing her secret, she was ever successful in keeping alive and disappointing the hope of her lover; and she justified herself with the belief, that, by the example of her chastity, she guided him on the way to heaven. Indeed, by checking his warm inclination to sensual indulgences, and by exalting his religious principles, her conduct proved beneficial to him. But he was also disposed to a morbid sensibility, a disease peculiar to men of genius, and which, whenever it is embittered by protracted misfortunes or lingering passions, never fails to degenerate into a hopeless consumption of mind.'

In turning from the *Love* to the *Poetry* of Petrarch (Essay II.), some persons would be surprized to hear that he was a very laborious writer: but, with the examples of Pope, Gray, Collins, and many of our easiest and most melodious poets before our eyes, we confess that we do not find much cause for admiration. The subjoined particulars relative to his habits of composition are sufficiently curious to merit notice:

' The following is a literal translation of a succession of memorandums in Latin, at the head of one of his sonnets: — " I began this by the impulse of the Lord (*Domino jubente*), 10th September, at the dawn of day, after my morning prayers."

' " I must

'"I must make these two verses over again, singing them (*cantando*), and I must transpose them; 3 o'clock, A. M. 19th October."

'"I like this (*hoc placet*). 30th October, 10 o'clock in the morning."

'"No; this does not please me. 20th December in the evening —"

'And in the midst of his corrections he writes, on laying down his pen, "I shall return to this again; I am called to supper."

'"February 18th, towards noon; this is now well; however, look at it again (*vide tamen adhuc*)."

'Sometimes he notes the town where he happens to be: — "1364, *Veneris mane,* 19 *Jan. dum invitus Patavii ferior.*" — It might seem rather a curious than useful remark, that it was generally on Friday that he occupied himself with the painful labour of correction, did we not also know that it was to him a day of fast and penitence.'

Another peculiarity in the poetry of Petrarch is his imitation of the Hebrew writers; though Signor Foscolo is not quite correct in his supposition that it has never before been noticed. This extract will likewise include a specimen of Lady Dacre's very beautiful translations, which accompany the present volume:

'Neither could the sensual love of the Romans and of the Greeks be reconciled with the delicacy of Petrarch's poetry. His finest imitations are drawn from the sacred writings, which I do not believe has yet been remarked by any critic, although it must be obvious to every one how deeply all his thoughts were imbued with religion —

'*E femmisi all' incontra*
A mezza via, come nemico armato. — P. 2. Son. 47.

'"So shall thy poverty come as one that travelleth, and thy want as an armed man." — Prov. c. xxiv. v. 34.

'*E la cetera mia rivolta è in pianto.* — P. 1. Son. 24.

'"My harp also is turned to mourning." — Job, c. xxx. v. 31.

'*Qual grazia, qual amore, o qual destino*
Mi darà penne a guisa di colomba,
Ch' io mi riposi, e levimi da terra? — P. 1. Son. 60.

'"O that I had wings like a dove! *for then* would I flee away, and be at rest." — Psalm lv. v. 5.

'*Vergine bella, che di Sol vestita,*
Coronata di stelle. — P. 2. Canz. ult.

'"A woman clothed with the sun — and upon her head a crown of twelve stars." — Revel. c. xii. v. 1, 2.

The elevated strain of piety and love, which breathes through his works, borders occasionally on profaneness: —

‘ *Baciale il piede, e la man bella e bianca;*
Dille, e il baciar sia in vece di parole,
Lo spirto è pronto, ma la carne è stanca.

‘ Her lovely feet and gentle hands salute,
Wafting a poor reply with semblance mute,
Mourning and humble—signs that seem to speak
“ The spirit is willing, but the flesh is weak.”
Matth. c. xxvi. v. 41.

To dissipate Laura's jealousy, he compares the eagerness with which he sought her resemblance in the face of beautiful women, to the devotion of a pilgrim gazing at the image of his Saviour —

‘ *Movesi 'l vecchierel canuto, e bianco,*
Dal dolce loco ov' ha sua età fornita,
E dalla famigliuola sbigottita
Che vede 'l caro Padre venir manco:
Indi, traendo poi l'antico fianco
Per l'estreme giornate di sua vita,
Quanto più può col buon voler s'aita,
Rotto dagli anni e dal cammino stanco:
E viene a Roma seguendo'l desio
Per mirar la sembianza di colui
Ch'ancor lassù nel Ciel vedere spera;
Così, lasso, talor vo cercand' io,
Donna, quant' è possibile, in altrui
La desiata vostra forma vera.

‘ The palmer bent, with locks of silver gray,
Quits the sweet spot where he has pass'd his years,
Quits his poor family whose anxious fears
Paint the loved father fainting on his way;
And trembling, on his aged limbs slow borne,
In these last days that close his earthly course,
He, in his soul's strong purpose, finds new force,
Though weak with age, though by long travel worn:
Thus reaching Rome, led on by pious love,
He seeks the image of that Saviour Lord
Whom soon he hopes to meet in bliss above:
So, oft in other forms I seek to trace
Some charm, that to my heart may yet afford
A faint resemblance of thy matchless grace.
Lady Dacre.’

While the whole of this essay on the poetry of Petrarch is expressed in a cool and impartial tone of criticism, it does not fail to raise the poetical character of the bard considerably in our estimation. Such is the tendency, we think, of the ensuing remarks, with Lady Dacre's excellent version of the poet's

“ *Vago augelletto, che cantando vai,*” &c. &c.

'It is chiefly in the expression of grief that Petrarch enters into every heart, and that all hearts enter into his. Neatness of diction — delicacy of sentiment — Platonic ecstasy, — all yield to the violence of his grief; and we witness the dreadful conflict of reason with despair — of passion with religion. The remembrance of his love, and the remorse of his guilty desires, penetrate his heart; and whilst he seems ready to destroy himself, he is checked by the fear only of passing from one misery to a greater: —

' Se sapessi per Morte essere scarco
Del pensier amoroso che mi atterra,
Con le mie mani avrei già posto in terra
Queste membra dogliose e quello incarco:
Ma perch' io temo che sarebbe un varco
Di pianto in pianto, e d' una in altra guerra —

' Oh! if this cankering thought — this torturing dream
In endless death these hands might hope to close;
Soon should my wearied limbs on earth repose,
And the damp sod a welcome bed I'd deem.
But still I fear to tempt the awful stream,
To fly from strife to strife — from woe to woes.

When he seeks consolation from Heaven, from mankind, and from all the objects that surround him, our sympathy with the man makes us almost forget our admiration of the poet; because we see, that, like every creature who feels extremely miserable, he fancies that he has inspired all nature with his own affliction: —

' Poor solitary bird, that pour'st thy lay,
Or haply mournest the sweet season gone:
As chilly night and winter hurry on,
And day-light fades, and summer flies away;
If as the cares that swell thy little throat
Thou knew'st alike the woes that wound my rest,
Oh, thou wouldst house thee in this kindred breast,
And mix with mine thy melancholy note.
Yet little know I ours are kindred ills:
She still may live the object of thy song:
Not so for me stern Death or Heaven wills!
But the sad season, and less grateful hour,
And of past joy and sorrow thoughts that throng
Prompt my full heart this idle lay to pour.
LADY DACRE.'

Though *this* essay, however, appears to us the most complete and masterly of the whole, yet, in treating next of the poet's *Character*, the writer has been both impartial and happy; which is the more meritorious because he appears to have been drawing the portrait of a favorite. He does not forget that, though of an open and generous nature, Petrarch was somewhat bigoted to his own opinions; — indignant against such as presumed to reflect on his poetry or his manners; —

fond of comparing himself indirectly with the greatest personages of antiquity; —and even imposing on his own mind by an affected candor and humility, because he had no very powerful contemporary to dispute the literary sovereignty with him. That he could be jealous, however, of the fame even of the departed Dante, he stands convicted by his own words, in his letter to his friend Boccaccio. He was courted by princes, and had ecclesiastical benefices heaped on him by popes and cardinals; he was adored by the people; pilgrims and travellers resorted to his residence; and governments invited him to take on himself the conduct of their embassies. Of his wealth and importance, he was therefore justly proud; and he presumed on his power so far as to satirize in the most indignant terms the vicegerent of Heaven and his holy court, as well as many other potentates of the age: while, far from retaliating, the Pontiff vainly attempted to flatter him into peace.

Moreover, Petrarch did not suffer the patronage and friendship of the great to extend their influence over his political views and opinions: but such was his patriotic ardor, that, notwithstanding his intimate connection with the Colonna and other noble families, he did not hesitate to add his voice to the cause of Cola di Rienzo, in his efforts to regenerate the departed spirit of the Romans. It required, therefore, all his high reputation, and all the admiration evinced by his countrymen, to shield him from the enmity of his powerful adversaries. Innocent VI. believed him to be a magician, and would have brought him to the stake: — but he dared not; — although the poet called him " a suspicious and indolent bear, whose coarseness caused the luxury and the easiness of his predecessor to be forgiven." The present writer observes that his influence over the great 'is one of the most extraordinary and inexplicable traits of his character. The reason was, perhaps, that though his gratitude for benefits received was profoundly felt and loudly expressed, he never stooped to flatter, like men who look for new favors. Often, and while he was still without fortune or fame, he addressed severe remonstrances and advice to his benefactors, persons who were venerable from their station and their years.' (P. 137.)

Before he quitted the world in disgust and disappointment, for his retreat, which he seldom afterward left, Petrarch had been a diligent traveller, and a minute observer of the customs and governments of various nations; many observations on which he has handed down to us in his letters, though few of them have been published. He is likewise numbered among the restorers of literature in Europe; as well as among ecclesiastics, statesmen, and patriots, added to his crowning title of *Italy's Second Poet.*—It is here that we approach the parallel between him and his great but unfortunate predecessor, instituted in the fourth and last of the essays before us. Until our own times, Petrarch was even deemed superior to Dante by most of the wits and critics of Italy, especially since the lively and polished age of Leo the Tenth: but such an opinion is fast losing ground, owing to the efforts of a more hardy and vigorous spirit of criticism, which has lately begun to prevail both in Italy and elsewhere; — and in the justness of its decisions Signor Foscolo seems partly to acquiesce. Petrarch himself affected to mingle Dante indiscriminately with others who were eclipsed by his own fame,

> " *Ma ben ti prego, che in la terza spera,*
> *Guitton saluti, e Messer Cino, e Dante,*
> *Franceschin nostro, e tutta quella shiera,*" &c.

This is too wide a field for us to enter on it here; and we are so far averse from such comparisons, that little truth or satisfaction can be obtained from them because they are altogether depending on *taste.* Where they turn, however, on the character rather than the poetry of these " mighty masters of the lyre," the remarks are often curious and interesting: their characteristics are very happily drawn; their respective merits are fairly balanced; the distinctions are clearly shewn; and the intellectual and moral superiority is, as it ought to be, awarded to Dante. Such a parallel, indeed, teaches an important lesson to humanity, while it affords a striking contrast. Both were founders of the literature and poetry of their country: both acted a distinguished part in the historical drama of their age; and they were nearly contemporary with each other:—yet Petrarch basked in the smiles of princes, was the favorite of the people, was surrounded with temporary honors, and tasted an earnest of his future fame; while the proscribed and persecuted Dante was compelled to beg his way from court to court, and to experience,

> " How salt the savour is of other's bread,
> How hard the passage to descend and climb
> By other's stairs." (CARY's *Trans.*)

Still we behold him preserving a noble pride and equanimity in the midst of all his sufferings; exclaiming, with equal fearlessness and truth,

> " Conscience makes me firm,
> The boon companion who her strong breast-plate
> Buckles on him who feels no guilt within,
> And bids him on and fear not."

On the contrary, Petrarch's discontent and wretchedness but too loudly make themselves heard in a tone of querulous sorrow and complaint, which manifests the feebleness and inferiority of his mind even in the midst of all his prosperity, and all the flatteries of the great. Hence, we may observe with Signor Foscolo, Petrarch's poetry 'wraps us in an idle melancholy, in the softest and sweetest visions, in the error of depending on others' affection, and leads us vainly to run after perfect happiness, until we plunge headlong into that despair which ensues—

> 'When Hope has fled affrighted from thy face,
> And giant Sorrow fills the empty place.'

The same weak and plaintive character may be traced in the close of the following version of one of his "*Canzoni*," from the pen of Lady Dacre; whose specimens of Petrarch's muse are often rendered with a degree of poetic beauty and fidelity which fully intitles her to the dedication of the work, and its author's profuse acknowlegements:

> 'And in some shelter'd bay, at evening's close,
> The mariners their rude coats round them fold,
> Stretch'd on the rugged plank in deep repose:
> But I, though Phœbus sink into the main
> And leave Granada wrapt in night, with Spain,
> Morocco, and the Pillars famed of old,
> Though all of human kind
> And every creature blest
> All hush their ills to rest,
> No end to my unceasing sorrows find;
> And still the sad account swells day by day;
> For since these thoughts on my lorn spirit prey,
> I see the tenth year roll,
> Nor hope of freedom springs in my desponding soul.
> LADY DACRE.'

We have neither time nor room to pursue the question to its close; nor to give, as we had fully intended, more copious extracts from the very Petrarchian versions which are presented to us by the same and by another lady. The essayist, indeed, has laid under contribution the poetical talents of many others besides these fair friends; for we observe the "*disjecta membra*" of Lord Byron, Mr. Milman, Mr. Merivale, Mr. Cary, and Mr. Moore, scattered in the shape of translation throughout the volume. Among these we think Mr. Milman's lines are far more harsh and constrained than any that we find in the pieces of Lady Dacre; and those of Lord Byron from the "Africa" are by no means in his best style. — To the whole is subjoined a very copious Appendix, referring to the Essays, and containing specimens of Petrarch's Latin poetry; a few of his unpublished letters in Italian; and specimens of Greek love-poetry, from Sappho down to the writers of the Lower Empire. We must not forget also Lorenzo de Medici's "Theory of Love," prefixed to his amatory poems, and first given by Mr. Roscoe, (to whom the author expresses his obligations,) in his late work intitled "Illustrations of the Life of Lorenzo." Not even the erotic effusions of Anacreon, by Mr. Moore, are spared on this occasion; and we have "the Dirge of a Lover" from Euripides, by Bland, the "Goatherd" from Theocritus, and the "Death of Adonis" from Bion, by Elton: insomuch that the whole work may be said to be fairly saturated with love. Yet we no where meet with the slightest shade of levity or indelicacy, to sully the brightness and purity of the page.

We have only farther to remark that we attribute the successful manner, in which we think the author has conducted these inquiries into the genius and character of Petrarch, to the judicious plan adopted throughout, of ascertaining and illustrating them, as much as possible, by reference to the poet's own productions and opinions, as well as by historical records. It is thus that the writer has succeeded in displaying them under every diversity and shade of passion; bringing the individual traits, as stamped fresh from the heart and head of the poet on his works, into a clear historical point of view. All those diverging and scattered rays of light, which were wont to break on us by degrees as we endeavored to penetrate into the real feelings, loves, and sufferings of the poet, are here collected into one bright illuminating focus; through which we may look into the retreat and studies,—into the secret motives and vain but harmless display of disinterestedness and generosity,—with which he sometimes imposed both on himself and others.

Should it be observed that we have insisted little on any blemishes or any real defects attaching to the present essays, we frankly declare, in terms which we are too seldom justified in adopting, that the biographical and critical portions of the volume are, in our estimation, really placed beyond the reach of an English reviewer's censure. They are too evidently the result of a comprehensive genius and clear judgment, to fear the cavils or the witticism of our *modern Aristarchi*; who will scarcely, we imagine, have the presumption and conceit to annul the decisions of Ugo Foscolo on matters connected with the early literature of his country. The same reasoning, however, will not apply to the plan of the work; — of which the chief fault, ably executed as it must be allowed to be, is the attempt to embrace too many objects, and to accomplish too much. Solidity and extent of learning, depth of reflection, and poetic ornament, are all compressed in a light and popular form, and within a popular number of pages: — a veil of pleasure is thrown over the harsh and forbidding features of Wisdom's goddess: — the brows of criticism are wreathed with myrtle instead of thorns: — the Graces appear before us with loosened zones; — and the Muse herself charms us while she sings, in the cestus of the Paphian queen: — but still they are the Loves and Graces whom Plato adored.

ART. VII. *The Works of Garcilasso de la Vega,* surnamed the Prince of Castilian Poets. Translated into English Verse; with a Critical and Historical Essay on Spanish Poetry, and a Life of the Author. By J. H. Wiffen. 8vo. pp. 407. 12s. Boards. Hurst and Co. 1823.

WHILE all the most illustrious poets of Italy have been naturalized in our language, it is singular that we should so long have neglected the poetic literature of Spain. The political relations of the two countries, at the period when the latter boasted her noblest poets, have been assigned as one cause of this circumstance: but, for our own part, we feel inclined to attribute it rather to the absence of the epic Muse among the Spanish writers. If we examine the early English versions of the Italian poets, we shall find that our translators invariably selected those compositions, the connected nature and length of which were calculated to make an impression on the public mind. Such were the translations of Tasso by Carew and Fairfax, and of Ariosto by Sir John Harington: — but, as the Spanish possess no epics, or rather none which are worthy of the name, the attention of our scholars has never been attracted so strongly to their writings as to those of the great Italians.

Within the last fifty years, however, the eyes of many of our men of letters have been directed towards the rich garden of Spanish poetry, and a few flowers have occasionally been gathered by stray foragers from its borders: but still we could scarcely judge of their hues and their odour. At length, Mr. Wiffen, with a bolder hand, has dared to transplant some of the most beautiful specimens into our English soil, which we sincerely hope will meet with kindly culture and due admiration. Till the appearance of the present volume, we did not in fact possess a complete translation of the works of a single Spanish poet. Hayley did all that was in his power (which was in reality very little) to give the English reader readers some idea of the *Araucana* of Ercilla, one of those admired epics which the Spaniards have vainly endeavoured to deify; and Mr. Southey, by his singular compilation of 'The Chronicle of the Cid,' contributed to keep alive public curiosity on the subject of Spanish literature; while the inimitable translation of a portion of the *Poema del Cid* subjoined to that work, and which is understood to have proceeded from the pen of Mr. Frere, must have rendered every one who perused it most desirous of becoming acquainted with the original. If to these we add several contributions to a periodical work which have been attributed to the same gentleman, with some valuable papers by Mr. Bowring in others, and lastly, Mr. Lockhart's "Ancient Spanish Ballads," we shall, we believe, have enumerated nearly all the translations which exist in our language from the Spanish poets.

In selecting Garcilasso from among his compatriots as a writer well qualified to attract the admiration of the English public, we think that Mr. Wiffen has acted judiciously. Independently of the genuine poetical spirit which breathes through all his compositions, there are some peculiarities in the style of this "prince of Castilian poets," which must tend to conciliate an English reader. He was the intimate friend of Boscan, a poet who was the first among his countrymen to imitate the Italians in his writings; by him the attention of Garcilasso was directed to the study of the classical authors, as well as of their Italian successors; and his style thus became so much tinctured with the manner of the latter, that he has been frequently called "the Spanish Petrarch." The melancholy tenderness, also, which his imitation of this great model has infused into his verses, renders his writings much more agreeable to an English ear than those of his contemporaries; which are too often disfigured with the ingenious affectation that was so prevalent among the poets of his day, and that renders their compositions little fitted to be transferred to another language. Few traces of this fault are to be found in the works of Garcilasso, though he had not altogether avoided it; but his reputation chiefly depends on his pastorals, which are, in truth, exceedingly sweet and elegant, and entitle him at least as justly to the title of the Spanish Sannazzaro, as his sonnets have gained for him that of the Spanish Petrarch. The first eclogue, which is much superior to the others, is regarded by the critics of his country as one of the finest works in their language; and the richness of feeling and felicity of expression in which the original abounds, have been very skilfully preserved by Mr. Wiffen in his English version. Indeed, the eclogues are, in our opinion, the best executed portion of the volume before us; and we shall select from the first of them a few passages, which cannot fail to make a favorable impression on the reader's mind.

The speaker of the following lines is the shepherd Salicio, who bewails the infidelity of his mistress:

'And thou, without one pensive memory
Of this my life, without the slightest sign
Of pity for my pangs, dost thou consign
To the stray winds, ungrateful, every tie
Of love and faith, which thou didst vow should be
Locked in thy soul eternally for me?
Oh righteous Gods! if from on high ye view
This false, this perjured maid
Work the destruction of a friend so true,
Why leave her crime of justice unrepaid?
Dying I am with hopeless, sharp concern;
If to tried friendship this is the return
She makes, with what will she requite her foe?
Flow forth, my tears, 'tis meet that ye should flow!
'Through thee the silence of the shaded glen,
Through thee the horror of the lonely mountain
Pleased me no less than the resort of men;
The breeze, the summer wood, and lucid fountain,
The purple rose, white lily of the lake,
Were sweet for thy sweet sake;
For thee the fragrant primrose, dropt with dew,
Was wished when first it blew!
Oh how completely was I in all this
Myself deceiving! oh the different part
That thou wert acting, covering with a kiss
Of seeming love, the traitor in thy heart!
This my severe misfortune, long ago,
Did the soothsaying raven, sailing by
On the black storm, with hoarse sinister cry,
Clearly presage: in gentleness of woe,
Flow forth my tears, 'tis meet that ye should flow!
'How oft, when slumbering in the forest brown,
Deeming it fancy's mystical deceit,
Have I beheld my fate in dreams foreshown!
One day, methought that from the noontide heat
I drove my flocks to drink of Tagus' flood,
And, under curtain of its bordering wood,
Take my cool siesta; but, arrived, the stream,
I know not by what magic, changed its track,
And in new channels, by an unused way,
Rolled its warped waters back;

Whilst I, scorched, melting with the heat extreme,
Went ever following in their flight, astray,
The wizard waves; in gentleness of woe,
Flow forth, my tears, 'tis meet that ye should flow!
'In the charmed ear of what beloved youth
Sounds thy sweet voice? on whom revolvest thou
Thy beautiful blue eyes? on whose proved truth
Anchors thy broken faith? who presses now
Thy laughing lip, and hopes thy heaven of charms,
Locked in the' embraces of thy two white arms?
Say thou, for whom hast thou so rudely left
My love, or stolen, who triumphs in the theft?
I have not yet a bosom so untrue
To feeling, nor a heart of stone, to view
My darling ivy, torn from me, take root
Against another wall or prosperous pine,
To see my virgin vine
Around another elm in marriage hang
Its curling tendrils and empurpled fruit,
Without the torture of a jealous pang,
Ev'n to the loss of life; in gentle woe,
Flow forth, my tears, 'tis meet that ye should flow!'

In the verses which we shall next quote, Nemoroso, the companion of Salicio, laments the untimely death of the shepherdess whom he loved. This passage, which is cited both by Sismondi in his Literature of the South and by Boutterwek in his History of Spanish Literature, is said by the latter to be unequalled either in antient or modern literature.

'Poor, lost Eliza! of thy locks of gold,
One treasured ringlet in white silk I keep
For ever at my heart, which, when unrolled,
Fresh grief and pity o'er my spirit creep;
And my insatiate eyes, for hours untold,
O'er the dear pledge will, like an infant's, weep:
With sighs more warm than fire anon I dry
The tears from off it, number one by one
The radiant hairs, and with a love-knot tie;
Mine eyes, this duty done,
Give over weeping, and with slight relief
I taste a short forgetfulness of grief.'

The *canzoni* and the sonnets of Garcilasso do not equal his eclogues. Among the sonnets, some are exceedingly full of *concetti*, as for instance the fourth, in which he compares his mistress's face to a manuscript from which he delights to study. The specimen which we shall extract (sonnet xxi.) breathes all the ardent gallantry of a knight, a poet, and a Spaniard.

'With

'With keen desire to see what the fine swell
Of thy white bosom in its core keeps shrined,
If the interior graces of the mind
Its outward shape and loveliness excel,
I have my sight fixed on it; but the spell
Of its voluptuous beauty holds mine eyes
In such enchantment, that their curious spies
Pass not to mark the spirit in its cell,
And thus stay weeping at the portal, made
To grieve me by that hiding hand which even
Holds its own bosom's beauty unforgiven;
So I behold my hope to death betrayed,
And love's sharp lances, rarely known to fail,
Serve not to pierce beyond its muslin mail.'

Our last quotation is a short lyrical piece.

'*To his Lady, having married another.*

I will now cease, nor ruffle more
Thy beauteous cheek with speech so free;
My silent dying shall restore
Its peace, and mutely speak for me.

'I have already deeply erred
In saying what were best unsaid,
Thy gentle heart I have but stirred,
Not staunched a single wound that bled.

'Henceforth I heave no fruitless sighs,
No tears but unseen tears I shed;
The injured heart that silent dies,
Has that which speaks in Injury's stead!'

To the present volume is prefixed a dissertation on Spanish poetry, translated from Quintana, who published the *Poesias selectas Castellanas.* It contains a very lucid and compact view of the history of Spanish poetry, and is agreeably diversified by short specimens from the works of the writers mentioned in it, of which English versions are given by Mr. Wiffen. If the reader should desire a fuller view of the subject, he may resort to Boutterwek's History of Spanish Literature, which, except in the dramatic department, is very copious and complete.

The life of Garcilasso is an interesting sketch. Like many of the noblest poets of his country, he was an enterprizing and undaunted warrior; and, though in his verse he salutes the god of battles with some very hard titles,

"*O crudo, o riguroso, o duro Marte!*"

yet he appears to have been as ardently devoted to him, as to the gentle muses. He perished at the attack of a fort in the south of France, at the early age of thirty-three.

Before we conclude, we would observe, with regard to the style in which Mr. Wiffen has executed his translation, that in general it is both spirited and elegant, but is occasionally uneven and obscure, especially in the sonnets: though allowance must certainly be made for the difficulty of rendering some of the latter, with any effect, into English. Where did Mr. W. discover the word *lengthy*, which he employs in the preliminary essay? In a vocabulary of Americanisms, we find that the use of it is now avoided even on the other side of the Atlantic.

In our Number for June, 1821, we spoke with commendation of Mr. Wiffen's translation of the fourth book of the *Jerusalem Delivered*, and we are glad to perceive that he is now about to publish (by subscription) a version of the whole of that noble poem.

Art. VIII. *Narrative of a Journey in the Morea.* By Sir William Gell, M.A. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. pp. 411. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

We have not dissembled our sentiments on the great subject of Greek independence: but, in the expression of those sentiments, we endeavored to preserve an equal medium between that overheated enthusiasm which overlooks every difficulty, and that cold and calculating caution which lays the hand of death on every lofty and generous enterprize. To have shut our eyes against the perils that menace and the impediments that retard the progress of Greek liberty would, in our opinion, have betrayed as narrow and circumscribed a view of the question as if we were unduly to magnify and over-rate them. In truth, danger and suffering are the price set on every high and valuable blessing: but we could not suppress the hope, which we still cherish, of seeing even in our own day the acute, the subtle, and the elegant descendants of antient Greece, working out their deliverance from the most grinding and disgraceful servitude which in any region of the world has ever enfeebled and debased mankind. ΕΣΣΕΤΑΙ ’ΗΜΑΡ is still the pious ejaculation which escapes our hearts, whenever we turn to this interesting though in many respects painful subject.

Not so Sir William Gell. He has been moved, he tells us, to the publication of this narrative, (which is in itself a mere journal, and not much the better for having been kept so long in his drawer,) of a journey in the Morea performed many years ago, by the premature attempts to establish an independent Greek confederacy, — by the exaggerated reports of the force, the wisdom, and the union of that confederacy, — and by the virtuous purpose of administering an effectual cure to that enthusiasm, in proving that the Greeks are wholly incapable of obtaining, or of enjoying, the freedom which they are pursuing. — These motives prevailed on the ingenious author, to whose geographical researches and archaiological discoveries we owe many obligations, to brush the dust from his MS. and to send it into the world; not for the gratification of the classical student, or the elucidation of antiquarian inquiry, but for the sake of inculcating more correct and rational doctrines on the subject of Greek emancipation. It is but fair, however, to give the author's creed in his own words:

'It will be time to believe that the nations of the South are capable of a just enjoyment of liberty, when we see a single quiet example of it. Sparta itself exhibited a most terrible and inquisitorial tyranny under another name; and Athens, whose brightest days were during the reigns of the Pisistratidæ and Pericles, was subject to perpetual broils, deifying, exiling, recalling, and execrating, by turns, the objects of such versatile passions.

'With regard to the people themselves, I have little hesitation in saying they were better even under the Turks than they would be under a government of their own choosing, in their present state. A foreign force might indeed compel them to be happy for a time, but they must then submit to multiplied taxes and personal conscription, from which they have hitherto been almost exempt, till they had gained strength to break out again. Before that period, however, luxury would have made so great a progress, that the rich would unite with the strangers, preferring any chains to the convulsion which might break them; and this is the general course of events in the South, where the bounties of nature render the world worth living for even in chains, provided they be splendid. In the North, where nothing less than freedom could render existence supportable, the circle of events may perhaps pass through corresponding phases, though at a slower rate; for those who have once acquired the blessings of liberty under a cloudy sky are more likely to preserve it. It is with great facility that political changes take place in the nations of the South, and the consequence is the easy subversion of the existing governments; but to build up a new and better system is not in the power of a people who act neither on reason or experience, but from present impulse of feeling.

'Whether the same reasons, which will ever prevent the nations of the South from remaining independent, will not in time act on those of the North, where long security and luxury may effect by degrees that sort of indifference, which prefers comforts and fashions to any advantages which might arise from the momentary deprivation of them, only time can shew. Individual independence, and in time the public liberty, may be attacked in more ways than one. In Turkey they would set about it openly with the purse in their hands. In the North it might be attacked with more security by those in power, if they were ingenious enough to render themselves, at the same time, the models of fashion; for all the world would rather be thought even wicked to a certain extent than vulgar; the fear of that stigma, which operates most powerfully on the most polished state of society, would draw all by degrees into the snare, and the unwary would sell themselves to the gratification of vanity, triumphing all the time in their virtue, because they had received no money. Perhaps the period is fast approaching when the upper ranks of all climates would rather be rid of the troublesome honor of a share in the government. I should be as sorry to live in the South with a constitution, as in the North without one. There can, at all events, exist little chance of freedom, or what would really be emancipation, for the Greeks. They must fall to the share of the stranger, who is little likely to communicate to them that which he does not himself enjoy.'

The argument of Sir William Gell, at least so much of it as is intelligible, would lead to an abandonment of every good and a hopeless acquiescence in every evil. It is a sentence of political death on those nations, who have had the misfortune to be born a few latitudes south of our own; and we ourselves are indulged only with a respite till our time comes, that is to say, the period when we shall be glad to escape from 'the troublesome honor of a share in the government.' To this reasoning, however, we oppose the recorded history of the world; and even if facts were against us, which is by no means the case, we should oppose to it the moral nature of man, his wants, his virtues, the natural aspirations of his heart, and we may also add, — as a firm reliance in a benevolent Providence encourages us to believe, — the aims and destinations of his being. It is wholly irreconcileable with any rational views of the moral government of the universe, to consider the greatest of human blessings as destined for the exclusive enjoyment of so small a portion of mankind; as if freedom were a plant that did not flourish in every soil which was properly prepared for its reception. It is to this only that we look. Education must lead the way to emancipation, and education, we believe, has for some time been making advances in Greece: but independence itself educates those who attain it for its enjoyment; and it would be absurd to suppose that, if the Greeks should ultimately succeed in the long struggle to which they are doomed, they will not have rendered themselves fit for a free government by the very virtues that shew them to have deserved it. The doctrine that estimates a fitness for liberty by lines of latitude and longitude, or dooms mankind to be freemen or slaves according to the thermometer, scarcely deserves the compliment of a serious refutation..

> "Unmanly thought! what seasons can controul,
> What fancied zone can circumscribe the Soul?
> Who, conscious of the source from whence she springs,
> By Reason's light, on Resolution's wings,
> Spite of her frail companion, dauntless goes,
> Through Libya's deserts, or o'er Zembla's snows."
>
> GRAY.

Sir William Gell is a sceptic as to the literary and moral improvement of Greece; and, though we cannot coincide in the unfavorable notions which he seems to have contracted relative to the Greek character, nor in the general inferences which he derives from them, the opinions of a man who has travelled so frequently in that country, and sojourned so long in it, arei ntitled so far at least to respect that it would be unjust not to state them in his own language.

'The education of the English leads our countrymen to the side of the Greeks, whom they imagine the descendants of the heroes of antiquity; but the German journals have, in a great measure, caused the propagation of all the falsehoods with which the world has been lately inundated, with a gullibility quite incredible; as if at some city in the centre of Germany, watched by a more than Buonapartèan police, and situated at a hopeless distance from the sea, or any possible means of receiving information, there existed a subterraneous telegraph, which conveyed the earliest intelligence from Greece. The only circumstances they seem to have forgotten, are the lighting the Piræan road with gas lamps, the name of the Prima Donna of the opera at Thebes, and the notification of the reward offered by the Amphictyons for the discovery of the longitude.

'Of all hard pills to be swallowed, the Bible Society of Athens, the Smyrna Gazette, and what one would have thought sufficient to have damned the whole string of fabrications, "the Athenian Society of Philomusæ, which was instituted by the Vienna Congress in 1815," are the most difficult of digestion.

'For this the reader is referred to the 483d page of the Classical Journal, a most valuable work; the editor of which could not possibly be aware of the string of inventions he was retailing, and to whom I would not willingly be ungrateful for the handsome manner in which he has done me the honor to over-rate my own attempts to improve the knowledge of Grecian topography, in the very same page.

'Of the Philomusæ Society I was once a member, and one of the founders of the library; but retired on finding that certain Turks, who were said to be of good character, and of studious dispositions, were excluded merely because they were Mahometans; an exclusion which appeared to me wicked, as tending to encourage their extermination, not improvement; and ridiculous, as a sort of declaration of war, without either means or pretence, and a forerunner of the unhappy convulsions which have since taken place. To suppose that any Greek archbishop will ever sincerely support a Bible Society, the very first effect of which must be the ruin of his own pretensions, would be really too absurd to require a remark, if we had not witnessed the attempts of Protestants, on a visit to Rome, to preach down the Pope himself in his own capital. If a Greek, such as the Logotheti of Athens, has undertaken to be vice-president of a Bible Society in that city, his office of consul could not protect him from the indignation it would excite, were he sincere in his attempts. But if there had been any foundation for such accounts, the Archbishop and the Bible Society, the Smyrna Gazette, the "stereotype editions of Greek classics, widely circulated throughout Greece," and the whole series of Humbugiana, which those who have travelled in Greece read with silent astonishment, but which the enlightened public so greedily devour, must have long ceased to exist; and the Bibles, the mathematical lectures, the 30,000 volumes at Chios, the 700 students, and the angels on horseback, must have taken their departure to the place which gave them existence, the columns of a German newspaper. There really was a large school on the main land, east of Chios, which, like the German colleges, being the first to rebel, was the first to be extinguished. There was also a school at Scio, where there was every appearance of learning becoming the fashion; but it was entirely a foreign invention: and though I do not know the fact, I have no doubt that it was exclusive, and that a Turk would not have been permitted to send his son to study there. It became thus, like every thing else in Greek hands, a sort of political seminary, the leading principle of which was the overthrow of the Turks, — a principle perfectly natural to a Greek, but which it really required all the drowsiness of a worn out despotism to tolerate.

'To these observations I will add, that I was once very enthusiastic in the cause of Greece; that it is only by knowing well the nation, that my opinion is changed; that all the attempts to excite a crusade in favour of the Greeks have been backed by the most gross misrepresentations of their readiness to learn and improve, and of their present progress. Whoever embarks in their cause will fail, and will end by retiring in disgust. It is only Russia that can save them from themselves; and that must be done by exercising upon them for a whole generation the most despotic and coercive measures, and making them happy by force.'

This is an odd recipe for human happiness; and if there be no other chance of the restoration of Greece but by sending her to school for a century, to be flogged and flayed by Russian pedagogues, it would be best to leave her to her fate, and to the workings of those internal principles of improvement, which history and reason concur in shewing to be never wholly extinct or stationary among mankind. Yet, with Sir William Gell's leave, we must venture to assert that the accounts given by so many respectable travellers in Greece, of the increasing signs of moral and literary advancement in that country, do not come under the class of *Humbugiana*, to use his own choice and elegant expression; and we do not, therefore, think that her moral and political regeneration is an impossible event. It is certain that, during the last thirty years, the Greeks have made considerable progress in the antient language, as well as in general literature. Mr. Frederic Douglas *, to whose work we formerly paid due attention, and which is now lying on our table, says that there is hardly a single village in which some person may not be found who is able to read and converse in antient Greek; that many inhabitants of the Fanari at Constantinople use it with as much facility as the κοινῂ γλῶσσῃ; that a great alteration has taken place in the vernacular phraseology, in late years; and that it is by no means improbable that, in the course of half a century, the language of antient Greece may be again heard within the walls of Athens. Mr. Leake, also, states in his learned and valuable " Researches in Greece", that, " at present, there is not a Greek community in a tolerable state of opulence, either in Greek Proper, or in the other parts of Turkey, or in the Austrian dominions, or in Russia, that does not support a school for teaching the ancient Greek. The principal Hellenic schools are at Kesaria, in the Krimea, at Constantinople, Smyrna, Chios, and Salonika." At the college in Buchorest, it appears that, in November, 1810, there were 244 students, and 12 masters of natural philosophy, mathematics, geography, poetry, history, and the modern languages. In this institution, the masters receive prizes as well as the scholars; and, at the examination in 1811, a valuable gold snuff-box (χρυσῆν καὶ πολύτιμον ταμπακεραν) was adjudged to Constantine Vardalàchus, the head-master: — to the scholars, oval silver medals, having a figure of Apollo on one side, and on the other, 'Αρετῆς ἕνεκα και παιδἑιας. Ioannina had two academies; one of them kept by Athanasius Psalida, considered as the highest literary character in modern Greece; — the other, devoted to a younger class of scholars, is under the care of Valano, son of a celebrated Romaïc author. Sakallarius, a physician, has produced several original works, as well as translations. Koletti has published a treatise on heat, and has translated into the Romaic Legendre's geometry and Biot's arithmetic. "Much of the literature of modern Greece," says Dr. Holland, "comes from the region of Thessaly, which includes the vale of Tempe to the gulf of Volo." Philipidi, a native of Melies, is the translator of La Lande's astronomy, and of the logic of Condillac.

---

* " Essay on certain Points of Resemblance between the ancient and modern Greeks, by the Hon. Fred. Douglas." 1812.

These are unequivocal symptoms of a rapid improvement; and if Tournefort *, who travelled through Greece in 1780, was correct in saying that at that time not twelve persons in the country understood the language of their ancestors, we may form a more adequate idea of its progress. They are answers also to the gloomy insinuations of Sir William Gell, and will justify the cheering and consolatory hopes of the independence of Greece which her friends are now indulging. It will be strange indeed, if so much intellectual amelioration of the Greeks should not have by this time produced some of its natural fruits, and fitted the majority of the nation for the tranquil enjoyment of good government. An enlightened and active race of men, animated by the pride of ancestry and invigorated by the awakened spirit of independence, cannot in the nature of things long remain the slaves of an ignorant and brutal despotism. The stream of knowlege has fructified the soil; and we trust that it is not an unsubstantial vision which we are embracing, when we repeat our expectations that Greece will once more resume her place among the nations, and shake off the slumber that has benumbed her faculties and depressed her energies.

'Εν ὕπνω
Γὰρ πέσεν, αλλ' ανέγειρομένα
Χρωτα λαμπει, Εωσφόρος θα-
ητος ώς, ἄστροις εν αλλοις.

With these animadversions on the political parts of Sir William Gell's work we willingly dismiss the subject, and turn to those passages in his journal in which the author appears to much better advantage as the industrious archaiologist and intelligent traveller; acknowleging, however, that we have been scarcely able to tolerate that undue partiality towards the Turkish at the expence of the Greek character, which peeps out at every page in the volume. As Sir William, also, has kept his journal so long buried in his escrutoire, that Arcadia and the other districts of the Morea have been more recently explored by Dodwell and by Hughes, the greater part of his local descriptions are wholly devoid of

---

* *Voyage dans le Levant, Lettre III.*

novelty, and, for that reason, of interest. The "*nonum prematur in annum*" is a precept inapplicable to a book of travels, in this travelling age.

In conducting us over the Arcadian territory, the author observes:

'The district of the Nomian mountains did indeed differ essentially in its circumstances from almost all other tracts of pastoral occupation, generally too remote to derive benefit from that civilization which is produced by the intercourse with cities and the sight of strangers; whereas these were not only surrounded by populous cities at small distances from each other, but contained within their own confined circuit cities of no inconsiderable extent, and were frequented by the inhabitants of all the surrounding states, on the occasion of the Lycæan games, which took place on one of their summits. They appear also to have been, to a certain degree, exempt from the horrors of frequent war; partly protected by the sanctity of the region, and partly by the impregnable nature of their fastnesses.

'Phigaleia, a very considerable city, as may be seen by the circuit of its walls, extended over a rugged and elevated tract. We crossed the Neda near a waterfall, and ascending by a steep path, came immediately to the foundations of what must have been the gate of Phigaleia, after a ride of about four hours and thirty minutes. Another rugged ascent, which in one part consists of a road supported by ancient masonry, conducted us in about ten minutes to the little village of Paulitza, or Paolitza, the present representative of the Arcadian city. The representatives of the shepherds, however, seemed by no means disposed to receive us with ancient Arcadian hospitality; and insisted upon the impossibility of procuring for us a night's lodging at Paulitza, till Mustapha, whose anger had been rising during the conversation, called loudly to one of the Greek muleteers for a stick; a threat which soon procured, without further exertion, an introduction to one of the best built cottages of the village.'

From the following description, Arcadia is still the beauteous and smiling region which the praises of poetry have so often embellished:

'On the thirteenth of February, we quitted Andrutzena, taking an easterly course nearly parallel to the Alpheus toward Karitena. The road lay along the northern base of the Nomian mountains, and was consequently less agreeable at this season than its pretty succession of hills and dales, and its delightful shade, must have rendered it in summer. On the right we passed a ruined or at least deserted village of Robea, whence we descended under the dark shade of a grove of ilex to the river of Sourtina, on the banks of which we found fields of Indian corn. Having crossed a bridge, we saw on our left the ruins of what the Greeks call a Palaio Kastro Ellenico, or an ancient Greek fortress, the walls of which climb to the summit of a conical hill. It is now called Labda.

‘ In quitting the little plain which we traversed on the south of Labda, we observed the beautiful fountain which once supplied the city, and which the ancients most unaccountably seem so often to have left just out of the inclosure of their walls, and in the hands of a besieging enemy. A ruined chapel with a spreading platanus probably mark the site of a Pagan temple, now dedicated to the Panagia or Madonna of Sourtinà. On the top of an ascent from this place is caught the first view of the castle of Karitena, proudly seated on a rocky summit, in the centre of the most enchanting scenery imaginable. The fore-ground is a height covered with oaks, from which on the right many wooded ridges of the Nomian hills fall in rich succession of forms and tints to the rapid stream of the Alpheus, here seen forcing its way through a deep bed of rocks below. The junction of the Katchicolo (Gortyna) is also seen running from high mountains on the left; and above the fortress of Karitena, the immense mass of Mount Mænalus rises in a variety of majestic peaks, among which that called Salto tes Elatas is distinguished, black with the firs whence its name is derived.

‘ After a delay of twenty minutes, employed in sketching the view, the road descended for more than an hour in steep and dangerous declivities to the banks of the Alpheus, which we had scarcely time to admire, before we found our path intercepted by an envious torrent, so beautiful and so copious, that we at first took it for the main stream. After following this branch for a short time, under a thick shade of platanus and ilex, we turned short to the left, over a rock, and were surprized to find that we had passed round the source, which issues from its foot. Nothing can exceed the beauty of this sequestered spot; and if deep glens, spreading trees, and gushing waters, constitute the delights of Arcadian scenery, the poets have not sung in vain the praises of this region.

‘ On looking southward, up the mountain of Diophorte, we descried the village of Tragomano, a place in so elevated a situation, that when I afterwards visited it, I found the descent to this fount occupied nearly an hour. Half an hour higher up is the Hippodrome of the Lycæan games, and twenty minutes more would bring a person to the summit of Dioforte, or Mount Lycæus, who should be disposed to climb into what is perhaps the most interesting among the interesting mountains of the world. Our fount was not without its temple, or at least its sacred inclosure, of which some indications remain. Hence we climbed to another summit, where we found the church of St. Athanasius, and on our next descent passed the leaning minarets of a mosque, which has long ceased to exist, which our guides called Palaio, or old Karitena. The view of the present town and its castle has a fine effect from this spot, but the Alpheus, which flows between the houses and the spectator, runs in so deep a glen, and below such tremendous precipices, as to be wholly invisible.’

Sir William visited the country of the Mainotes, a district which is separated from the rest of the Laconian peninsula by a chain of almost impassable mountains. Within these bulwarks, a race of Greeks has uniformly braved the efforts of every nation to subdue them, that has successively wielded the sceptre of the Atridæ: but little is known of them; for, imitating the ξενηλασιαι of their ancestors, they have uniformly denied access to the various travellers who have endeavoured to penetrate into their region. We lament that Sir William Gell has given us so slight an account of this interesting people, and that it is also lamentably tinged with the prejudices through which he seems to contemplate every class of the Greek nation. It may be, therefore, useful to hint to our readers that the population of this country, which is for the most part mountainous and barren, is divided into little villages, while occasionally a white fortress of Italian architecture denotes the residence of some person of superior rank.

"The government," says Mr. Douglas, "was long administered by an assembly of the old men, from whom the Protogeronte was chosen annually. The misbehaviour of the last person that filled the office led to its abolition, and since that time, Maina has been divided between eight hereditary chiefs, who with the Italian title of Capitani exercise uncontrolled jurisdiction in their several districts. These form a great council to the Bey, who is elected from among themselves, but receives his investiture from the Capitan Pasha, to whose charge the country is allotted by the Porte. This Bey, however, is no otherwise distinguished than as the representative of the other Capitani in public transactions with the Turks, and the responsible agent for the Haratch. Under such a government, we are not surprized to find a race of bold and licentious robbers; yet their seclusion has preserved amongst them the virtues of constancy, fidelity, and truth. A traveller is instantly struck by the peculiar manliness of their look and carriage, and I have seen the proudest Turks sink into abject servility, on discovering that the Greek whom they had insulted was a Mainote."

The present author gives a less softened picture.

'We found that he (the Bey) was in fact only the temporary head of many lawless chieftains, called by the title of Captain or Katapan. Each of these was the petty tyrant of his own village and mountain, living in a state of perpetual warfare with his neighbours, in the strongest hold and most impracticable part of his own territory.

'These had never any bond of union, except resistance to the Turks, and when that had been rendered unnecessary by the treaty which stipulated the tribute, they fell out, as all such societies have done from the commencement of time, among themselves, and ravaged the properties of each other; thus exposing themselves to the attacks of the common enemy, had he been sufficiently alert to profit by circumstances. In this manner the Bey was, at the time of our visit, no more than the doubtful head of a species of wild oligarchy, reduced by the jealousy of his nobles to a state of perpetual indecision in foreign concerns, and so nearly powerless in the interior, that the countenance of the Turks was necessary to his existence. It appeared to us one of the most hopeless cases with which we had ever been acquainted; and we could not help observing that the people of the free and independent Maina were in every respect more harassed, worse treated, more indigent, and beyond comparison more wretched than those of any other district we had traversed. They gain nothing by any of the disputes between the Bey and the chiefs; if the latter prevail, it is by forcing the poor into their service; while, if the Bey were triumphant, he would neither have the inclination nor the power which a sovereign would possess, of rewarding merit, or opening a path to honourable ambition. Under a hundred captains they are a hundred times more oppressed than they would be under the worst despotism of the Turks; and if their liberty has only reference to their religion, it may be fairly doubted whether there be not as great a number of ruined churches in Maina as in all the rest of Turkey together. As to ruined houses, no district so much abounds in them, and in none do those which are tenanted bespeak such squalid misery; a proof that the Greeks have at least as much taste for devastation as their neighbours.

'While the people suffered, the Bey was ill at ease; and the captains, even if they were independent, could boast, like the ancient Lacedemonians, of little to render life worth preserving. It is only a particular form of liberty, and that won by the virtue of the entire population, which can ever repay the inhabitants of any country for the horrors by which even a transient gleam of freedom is sometimes procured; for if the soil be not prepared, the plant will not prosper. As to the liberty of the Mainotes, it is at best such as the garrison of a besieged town enjoys, with an enemy at the gates and martial law within.'

We must here close this article: but not without expressing our satisfaction at the engravings with which Sir William has embellished his little work, and the designs of which do much credit to the pencil of the traveller.

ART. IX. *Outlines of a System of Political Economy;* written with a View to prove to Government and the Country, that the Cause of the present Agricultural Distress is entirely artificial; and to suggest a Plan for the Management of the Currency, by which it may be remedied now, and any Recurrence of similar Evils be prevented in future: together with the Fourth Edition of an "Essay on the Principles of Banking." By T. Joplin. 8vo. pp. 490. Baldwin and Co. 1823.

ANOTHER thick volume on political economy, and the sources of national wealth, may well startle the public, as indeed it startled us. So often have we, of late, rung changes on rent, value in exchange, value in use, price, profits of stock, capital, home-trade, foreign trade, and the principles of demand and supply, with many other terms of disputable import, that our readers will call for a more "*equitable adjustment*" of subjects if we do not endeavor to limit the supply to the demand, and take care not to depreciate our currency by an excessive issue.

We are placed, however, much at ease on the present occasion; for, various as are the subjects on which Mr. Joplin treats, he scarcely attempts to disguise the fact that they all bear on one point, all tend to one favorite object, the establishment of joint-stock banking-companies. Leaving other topics, therefore, we shall confine ourselves to a few observations on this. An author generally bespeaks the favorable attention of his readers by introducing himself in his preface as a gentleman introduces himself in a drawing-room, with certain courtesies and salutations to the company:—whatever pretensions he may have, he usually makes a modest bow, and urges them with insinuating diffidence. The preface to a book, however, though read first, is written last; and this may account for the confident manner in which Mr. Joplin presents himself, and for the air almost of defiance which distinguishes his gait. If his preface had been called a postscript, and had taken its appropriate place, he might perhaps have inferred the concurrence of his readers in the measures which he had previously proposed for adoption: but, when those measures are not less than an alteration in the charter of the Bank of England, and a general and total change in the system of banking throughout the kingdom, it is rather too much in the very first page to recommend such '*a simultaneous movement in different quarters, and such a general combination in favor of the object proposed, as would at once render nugatory any opposition from those who may expect to lose by it!*' Really it is too much to claim the victor's laurel and the triumphal arch before the first shot is fired: and to assert that 'an effectual opposition in the present state of the public mind is not to be dreaded: that the absolute necessity of a change in our banking system has long been felt, and is quite obvious; but that the present bankers have great influence in parliament, and might succeed, perhaps, in getting some half-measures adopted, if the public were to show the least indifference or *want of determination* on the subject.' The plan thus confidently proposed is the adoption in England of joint stock and chartered banks, on the principle of those in Scotland. — We are ready to allow that Mr. Joplin seems to be well informed as to the mechanical arrangement of the Scotch banks; but, whether this be so or not, *we* must take for granted that what he states on this head is correct. If, however, we concede to him the merit of correctness here, we must be permitted to question whether he has, on that concession, made out a case sufficiently strong to induce the capitalists and traders, south of the Tweed, to adopt and support similar establishments. It is not enough for him to shew that a certain mode of banking flourishes in Scotland; he must also prove that "existing circumstances" would warrant us in making trial of a similar mode; — and this he has not done, at least to our satisfaction.

When the Scotch establishments commenced, the ground was clear and unoccupied; and it may be questioned whether a paucity of credit in Scotland, rather than the superior eligibility of the plan, did not create these joint-stock companies. Our impression is decidedly hostile to monopolies; they are fetters on trade; and whether we look to the Royal Bank of Scotland, the Bank in Threadneedle-street, or the Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies, we see only the cradle to rock the giant. — What has been the actual conduct of the Scotch banks, and what essential advantages have they conferred on the public? The circulation of their Notes being altogether local, they availed themselves of their power to impose on the trade of that country an arbitrary and exorbitant usance; and it is only within a few years, in consequence of the spirited exertion of an opposing interest, (on the part of Mr. Maberly,) that they have been positively driven to adopt a more liberal system: — it is owing to this, as we understand, that bills may now be obtained in London in exchange for Scotch notes at *thirty* days instead of *fifty-five* days. What the author advances in favor of joint-stock banking companies, as they affect the security of the public, is true to a certain extent; and this is, indeed, the strong hold of the advocates of such companies as connected with the circulating medium. To individuals, while a paper-circulation exists, and particularly to the lower classes, it is essential that every guard should be placed against its depression, and to maintain its solidity: but a legislative enactment, which prohibited the issue of notes under five pounds, would present a better guard in this direction than all the joint-stock companies put together. It is, however, vain, under circumstances affecting the fiscal regulations of the country, to look for such an enactment. Banking establishments, as banks of circulation, began with the funding system, have grown with its growth, and are in fact the service-pipes of this grand gazometer. They were coëval with the debt of the country, and will continue to be co-existent with it.

'To the uniform success of joint-stock banking companies,' says Mr. Joplin, 'history affords but one exception, namely, the case of the Douglas, Herron, and Co., or Ayr Bank.' If he had not specified the case, we should certainly have thought that he had alluded to the stoppage of payment on the part of a chartered joint-stock company of far greater celebrity. The Bank of England, however, does not escape his observation, although it is noticed in a manner that we could not have expected. 'We have but one Public Bank, the Bank of England, and it has uniformly done well since its first establishment.' Without wishing to revive old grievances, we must remark that assuredly the march of Birnham Wood to Dunsinane did not more essentially contribute to the victory of Macduff, than did the march of St. Stephen's Chapel to the Bank of England in the year 1797 contribute to the salvation of that establishment from downright bankruptcy. To talk of the uniform prosperity of a bank whose notes are *forced* on the public by the strong arm of government, are made a legal tender, are protected against demand for cash-payments, and for years and years together continued in a state of depreciation, sometimes to five-and-twenty and thirty per cent., notwithstanding all the puffing and inflation which they received from the Exchequer, is perfectly ridiculous. — From the limited number of partners in our English banks, says Mr. Joplin, their management has frequently fallen into hands incompetent to such a trust; and he affirms, likewise, that the superiority in the success, as well as in the stability, of the Scotch banks, arises from their being public and not private concerns. Far be it from us to call in question the stability and credit of the Scotch banks, but we are not prepared to attribute their success to the uncircumscribed number of share-holders. They are in credit notwithstanding they are joint-stock companies, and not because they are so.

In joint-stock companies, the great bulk of proprietors know nothing about the affairs of the concern: the trade being managed by a Court of Directors, though subject to the control of a general meeting of proprietors. In a private copartnery, any individual of the firm, dormant or active, may at any time inspect the books, and demand an exact statement of the trade: but in joint-stock companies, this light is shed only on a favored few, and the many are kept in total darkness. They receive their half-year's dividends, and an occasional *bonus* convinces them that every thing is going on delightfully. Yet nothing can be more fallacious. Suppose a joint-stock company to be tottering, how would a Court of Directors, small in number but large share-holders, and naturally anxious to get away from the impending fall,—how would a Court, thus self-interested, naturally proceed in order to sustain for a time the credit of the stock? It would increase the half-year's dividend, and triumphantly declare an *extra bonus!* Shares would immediately rise, — and *they* would sell out.

Adam Smith has made some remarks on this subject which are so apposite, that we cannot refrain from applying them:

> "The total exemption," says he, "from trouble and from risk beyond a limited sum encourages many people to become adventurers in joint-stock companies who would, upon no account, hazard their fortunes in private copartnery. Such companies, therefore, commonly draw to themselves much greater stock than any private copartnery can boast of. The Directors, however, being the managers, rather of other people's money than of their own, it cannot well be expected that they should watch over it with the same anxious vigilance with which the partners in a private copartnery watch over their own. Like the stewards of a rich man, they are apt to consider attention to small matters as not for their master's honor, and very easily give themselves a dispensation from having it. Negligence and profusion, therefore, must always prevail more or less in the management of the affairs of such a company."

We know very well, however, that Adam Smith makes an exception in favor of the banking trade, the trade of insurance against fire, and one or two others, all the operations of which "are capable of being reduced to what is called a routine, or to such an uniformity of method as admits of no variation." He makes an exception of these, we say, deeming it "*possible*" for a joint-stock company to carry them on successfully, and for this reason; that the constitution of joint-stock companies renders them, in general, more tenacious of established rules than any private copartnery; and to depart on any occasion from those rules in consequence of some flattering speculation of extraordinary gain is almost always extremely dangerous and frequently fatal to the company which attempts it. Now we can see no greater difficulty in laying down strict rules, — not to dabble in the funds, for instance, — not to dabble in loans or lotteries, or in mining speculations, — not to throw bridges over rivers or "build castles in the air," — and strictly adhering to these rules on the part of any private company of bankers, than on the part of a joint-stock company; and if there be no greater difficulty, all the arguments against the latter remain untouched.

Mr. Joplin is so sanguine as to believe that the establishment of his joint-stock companies, by the erasure of that clause in the Bank of England charter which enacts that not more than six partners shall enter into any other banking concern, would immediately supersede those that now exist, and see how coolly he contemplates the consequence:

> 'The only persons who will be injured by it, will be the present bankers. But no set of men can expect a country to continue voluntarily to submit to an evil after it has discovered the cause and can apply the remedy. They must take the fate incident to all rights or institutions, founded in error: as soon as truth appears, the fabric, for want of its foundation, must be destroyed. But on none can a loss fall more lightly. If a banker be not independent of his trade, he ought not to be a banker. He has gained a credit that he is not entitled to; and to deprive him of a business he should not, and could not carry on, if the public were aware how little security he afforded them, is nothing more than an act of justice. If he be independent of his business, which the great majority of bankers are, he may lose, but cannot feel his loss very severely.'

Spallanzani did not perform his experiments on bats' eyes with more philosophical apathy.

Joint-stock banks are also to be a panacea against those fluctuations in the price of corn which have, indeed, the most injurious consequences. In the twenty-fifth chapter of his work, Mr. Joplin has laid down a 'Plan for the Government of the Currency' of the kingdom; which, having stated so freely our doubts respecting the wisdom of his project, it would not be doing him justice to withhold. 'In all cases,' says he, 'the influx of money into the market, whether proceeding from the balance of foreign trade or the issues of banks, is not the effect but the cause of high prices.' It may be doubted, however, whether there be not a re-action here, and whether high prices may not be a cause of increased bank-issues as well as an effect of them. A banker will advance much more freely to a farmer when his wheat is worth eighty shillings per quarter than when it is only worth forty or fifty.

With a metallic or a paper-currency which could not be issued by country banks at pleasure, the effects, says Mr. Joplin, of an inadequate circulation at one time and of an excessive circulation at another would not be produced:

'When the circulation of London exceeded that of the country, and determined the balance of payments in its favour, if the country banks could not increase their issues, money, with which to pay the balance, would have to be sent from the metropolis, and its circulation would be diminished as that of the country increased. No mountain of currency would therefore rise in London to be re-expelled by excessive prices; but by the internal balance of payments, the circulation would equalize itself, and when prices came to the national level, they would not rise above it.

'Now to put the currency on this footing, seems absolutely necessary, unless we wish corn to continue subject to those fluctuations in price which we have experienced during the last thirty years.'

How the currency is to be put on this footing is thus explained in the plan suggested for its government:

'1. Let an enquiry be made by a committee of parliament into the circulation of all the banks in the kingdom, at different periods, in order to ascertain, as far as possible, the amount of currency necessary in different districts, to maintain any given level of prices.

'2. Let public banks be established in different parts of the country, with proper capitals, and to each bank a certain amount of circulation be assigned; for which, let both the bank and the state be security to the public.

'3. Let each bank pay government for this currency a per centage, say three per cent., lend it out in the manner most agreeable to its interests, and keep it in circulation or not at its own pleasure.

'4. Let a board of commissioners be established in London, under whose management the currency may be placed; and to this board let every bank send weekly or monthly returns of the state of the circulation, the supply and demand for London bills, and such other information as the commissioners deem necessary for their government.

'5. Let these commissioners have an office for the deposit of bullion, and purchase all that comes into the country, at the mint-price, or a little above the mint-price. Let them pay for it by receipts or notes of not less, say, than 100*l*. each; and let any bank, either in London or any other part of the country, to which these notes or bullion-receipts may be presented, be obliged to discount them, not with old notes, but by an issue of new notes over and above their stated circulation, and then return them to the board of commissioners.

'6. When a demand for bills upon London, exceeding the supply, occurs in any district, let the [illegible] met by the drafts of its bank upon the commissioners for bullion, and let the notes received in demand for these bills be cancelled. If these drafts are presented for payment in bullion to be exported, or for any other purpose, let them be paid; but if they are remitted to any other part of the kingdom, let the banks, to whom they are presented for discount, issue fresh notes to their amount. In the same manner, let the Bank of England, or such banks of circulation as may be established in London, pay their notes by drafts upon the commissioners for bullion when required, and also issue fresh notes in discount of such drafts when presented, the same as the country establishments.

'Now by this plan, while banks could not manufacture money at pleasure, the currency would dilate and contract in the same manner as with a metallic circulation.'

Mr. Joplin's Essay on Banking has been published as a separate pamphlet, in which form three editions of it were printed.

Art. X. *A View of the present State of the Scilly Islands:* exhibiting their vast Importance to the British Empire; the Improvements of which they are susceptible; and a particular Account of the Means lately adopted for the Amelioration of the Condition of the Inhabitants, by the Establishment and Extension of their Fisheries. By the Rev. George Woodley, Missionary from the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge: and Minister of St. Martin's and St. Agnes, Scilly. Embellished with an accurate Chart. 8vo. pp. 344. 12s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1822.

The Acroceraunian mountains, separating the Ionian from the Adriatic seas, were not more formidable to the antients than have the rocks of Scilly been to mariners in modern times.

"*Quem mortis timuit gradum,*
Qui siccis oculis monstra natantia,
Qui vidit mare turgidum, et
Infames scopulos, Acroceraunia?" Hor.

Mr. Woodley is inclined to rescue them from their ill fame, not by denying the great peril to which vessels are exposed when approaching them too nearly in stormy weather, or the many and frightful disasters which they have occasioned, but by representing them as capable of greatly augmenting the industry and resources of the mother-country, and of being made an efficient means of protecting it from the approach of an enemy. With respect to the improvements of which Scilly is susceptible, there will probably be not two opinions, but there *may* be two opinions as to whether the cost of making them would not exceed their value when made. It indeed, the descent of an enemy on these islands were at all likely to be successful, and the hostile possession of them might present a facility for effecting a successful descent on the shores of England, no expence would be too great to render, by artificial means, the approach of an enemy altogether hopeless: but Mr. Woodley has more apprehensions on this subject than we have. There was no lack of inclination on the part of Napoleon to annoy this country in every possible way, or to invade it at any vulnerable point; and he tried the experiment on the coasts of Wales and of Ireland: but the Scilly islands were too formidable even for his enterprizing and daring spirit. At the commencement of hostilities between Great Britain and revolutionary France, a seventy-four gun ship and a frigate were, indeed, dispatched from the enemy's coast to make good a landing here: but the former got on the rocks to the westward of St. Agnes at night, and every soul on board perished; while the frigate with difficulty returned to port, and the enterprize was abandoned. From the excellent and vivid light displayed at St. Agnes, and the improved practical acquaintance of naval men with the islands, obtained from some valuable charts and surveys lately made, disasters have been much less frequent than formerly; and for above seven years past, Mr. Woodley says, no wreck of importance has been known on the islands.*

It was in the year 1707 that Admiral Sir Cloudesley Shovel, returning with his fleet from Toulon, was lost on the

---

* We copy the following note, as involving a subject of great importance: 'Notwithstanding the excellent measures which are adopted to render the light of St. Agnes extensively beneficial,—there is one cause, and that not of unfrequent occurrence, by which all those measures may, for a while, be rendered fruitless;—I mean, the prevalence of thick foggy weather. Such weather has ever been productive of apprehension to mariners, especially when near land; and in such weather it was (to give a very recent instance or two by way of illustration) that the Spanish brig Providençia, and the English schooner York, were totally wrecked, within half a mile of St. Agnes;—the former in 1821, and the latter in 1822. In order, therefore, to provide a *succedaneum* for sight thus obstructed, it appears desirable that recourse should be had to *sound*; or, to speak more plainly, that, near every light-house, a set of three large bells should be provided (to be rung by a mechanical contrivance) which should be employed by day or night during the continuance of hazy and gloomy weather.†

† A proposal of this kind was made by the author to the Secretary of the Corporation of the Trinity House, soon after the loss of the Spanish brig before mentioned; of which, however, *no notice appears to have been taken!*

Scilly rocks. The fleet came into soundings, in nineteen fathoms of water, in the morning; when, the wind blowing hard and the weather becoming foggy, the signal was made for lying-to, under the belief that they were near land. At six in the evening, the Admiral made sail again, followed by the rest of the ships, but shortly afterward made signals of danger which warned the distant ships to keep off to sea. At eight o'clock, the Admiral's ship, the Association, struck on the Gilstone; when in two minutes she went down, and every person perished except one man. The Eagle, Captain Hancock, of 70 guns, and the Romney, Captain Cory, likewise perished with all their crews. On this disastrous occasion, about two thousand men were lost! Lord Dursley, in the St. George, struck on the same rocks with Sir Cloudesley, but the very wave which beat out the Admiral's lights set the St. George afloat again. The man who survived the loss of the Admiral's ship was saved by floating on a piece of timber to the rock called the Hellweathers, where he remained some days before any boat could approach to take him off. He was then rescued from his perilous situation by a boat belonging to St. Agnes; where, as Mr. W. learns, he made a statement which, for the character of the individual and the discipline of the British navy, we sincerely hope is not true.

'The day before the occurrence of the disaster, a seaman of the Association, well acquainted with the navigation of the Channel, ventured to represent to the Admiral that by the course he was steering, he would inevitably run on Scilly rocks. The Admiral, incensed at this interference, charged him with insubordination and with endeavouring to excite a mutiny in the ship; and, in a very summary manner, condemned him to be hanged. The poor fellow begged, as a last favour, that a psalm might be read before his execution, which, being granted, he made choice of the *hundred and ninth*, so distinguished for expressions either imprecatory or declaratory of evil! He was hanged, however, according to his sentence, and the preceding narrative certainly derives an additional horror from this circumstance.'

The groupe called the Scilly islands consists of six principal islands, St. Mary's, Tresco, St. Martin's, St. Agnes', Bryher, and Samson; containing together 4080 acres, and a population of 2616 persons. Eleven smaller islands, however, varying in size from ten to fourscore acres each; twenty-one islets, containing from one to nine acres respectively; and an immense number of rocks, apparent or sunken, some surrounding the islands, others endangering the navigation of the sounds, and others stretching four or five miles into the Atlantic ocean; add to the peril of approaching vessels in stormy weather. Mr. Tucker, in his "Report" concerning the maritime improvement of which Scilly is capable, states that the anchorage there at present would not contain more than five sail of the line and two hundred merchant-vessels, in the different harbours: but he adds that, by building two moles or breakwaters, there would be ample room for ten or twelve sail of the line, a much greater number of frigates, and five hundred sail of transports or merchant-vessels. The estimated expence of building these moles is two millions ten thousand pounds; a calculation which Mr. Woodley considers to be much too large: but so great would be the national advantage, in his opinion, of making Scilly a more safe and extended roadstead and a permanent naval depôt, where vessels of war on the Channel or Irish station might be promptly repaired and supplied with stores on an emergency, that he regrets that some ulterior measures have not been taken by government to carry the suggestions of Mr. Tucker into effect.

Granite is the substratum of all the islands; and, from the proportion that it bears to the earthy covering with which it is invested, they may almost be said to be composed of granite. No timber-trees are to be seen here, but a few fruit-trees are found in some sheltered grounds in St. Mary's. The vegetable soil is a black peat, with granitulous particles; and its natural products are a thin, short, poor grass, intermixed with a few heath-flowers, and a dwarf kind of furze. Mr. Woodley says, notwithstanding, that the soil of Scilly is generally good; and that, were proper means adopted, and encouragement given for inclosing and cultivating land, the island of St. Mary would supply agricultural produce sufficient for the maintenance of double the amount of its present population. Most kinds of vegetables that are common in England grow here; the potatoes are of a superior quality, and are annually exported in considerable quantities to Gibraltar and the West Indies. The black cattle are small and coarse grained, and on the Off-islands are chiefly fed on sea-weed! The horses, likewise, are small and poor, their principal food being furze, which they find on the hills, and which they carefully bruize with their fore-hoofs before they eat it: but many die of hunger in the winter. Poultry of different kinds *may be obtained occasionally*, but generally in a small and lean state: there are no hares, but abundance of rabbits, and wild fowl of all sorts during the winter. Fish are numerous in species, large in size, and excellent in flavor. Neither viper nor adder, nor toads, nor any venomous creatures, are to be found here. The air, being strongly impregnated with saline effluvia, is peculiarly brisk and healthful: but to strangers it sometimes produces heaviness in the head and eyes, causing a sort of swimming in the head, and inducing sleepiness. No disease or complaint is peculiar to the islands, but *amentia*, in different degrees, is observable in rather numerous subjects. The natives are generally healthy, strong, and long-lived. Four-score years may be taken as the average term of life; but it is a melancholy statement, says Mr. W., 'which I have frequently heard, and believe to be correct, that *for one man who dies a natural death nine are drowned.*'

The climate of Scilly is so mild that an American aloe, in the garden of the Lieutenant-governor in the garrison, has blossomed in the open air: it is neither so cold in winter nor so hot in summer as in England. Frosts seldom happen, unless in a perfect calm, and a thaw generally takes place two or three hours after sunrise. Snow never lies on the ground more than two or three days. Water, particularly such as is desirable for drinking, is rather scarce, for there are no streams and but few springs in any of the islands, but some good wells in St. Mary's, and large ponds in others of the islands. The fine sand with which the roads, &c. are covered is particularly inconvenient; dazzling the eyes by its incessant glare in summer; and in winter, being furiously blown in the face by the boisterous gales which prevail in that season, it stings like a nettle. So constant are the winds, — and often violent, — that it has been found, by those who keep journals of the weather, that not more than six days of perfect calm occur in the course of the year.

We have just been told that for one man who dies a natural death nine are drowned: but really we may almost call drowning the natural death of a Scilliot. Hugh Town, which is the principal town of the principal island, St. Mary's, has been frequently inundated by the irruption of the ocean from Porth Cressa; and, according to Mr. Woodley, it will, in the end, be probably swept away, unless proper measures are speedily taken to avert the catastrophe. This town stands so low as to be almost level with every high tide. In the year 1744 the sea rolled into it, and threatened the destruction of all the houses: one of the torrents, passing directly over the isthmus to the pool, swallowed a house in its passage; a second was satisfied with the furniture of the steward's house, as it washed through it: but a third torrent came down, and joining the second passed together through the streets with great fury to the opposite sea, filling the rooms of houses and carrying away their furniture. Great stones were thrown by the sea into those houses which stood near to it in different parts of the islands; the walls of others were beaten down; and the dwellers, in imminent peril of their lives, could only make their escape out of the windows. In 1755, when Lisbon was destroyed by an earthquake, the shock was distinctly felt at Scilly. In 1771, during a high tide, the sea broke in and filled the town, but it did not suffer very materially. In January, 1817, another deluge took place, doing considerable damage, but unattended with any loss of lives: the shifting of the wind saved the town from destruction.

'So lately as the 22d of October, 1820, another dreadful storm took place; and, at high water (spring-tide), the scene was awfully distressing. The wind blew with resistless violence; several houses shook dreadfully; the spray flew in showers over the highest points of land; the sea was within a foot of the level of the town, and actually entered several dwelling-houses, courtlages and store-houses. Had the wind blown in a southerly instead of a westerly direction the town would inevitably have been overflowed. Much injury was done to the shipping and small craft at that time. His Majesty's brig Shamrock, then lying at Tresco, was obliged to cut away both her masts; several vessels parted their cables; a large American ship dragged her anchors and was stranded (after cutting away her foremast) near the Crow Rock; and a fine sloop of about twenty tons was dashed to pieces on the eastern side of St. Mary's harbour. Of these things I was an ocular witness.

'In consequence of the late irruption of the waters, and the continual apprehensions entertained of a similar visitation, attended, perhaps, with circumstances of a more disastrous nature than have yet been experienced, a subscription has recently been set on foot amongst a few of the principal inhabitants of that part of the town which is more immediately exposed to danger from the sea, and some protection may be afforded by the plan adopted; which is, to bring together such a quantity of large stones on the beach, just above high-water mark, as shall not only increase the height of the bank, but also, by compression, consolidate the sand beneath it, in such a manner as to prevent its shifting before a heavy sea, and thereby opening a passage to the waters. — The aid of government, or of the lord proprietor, is, however, necessary to insure the preservation of the town, as well as of the church, the exposed and dangerous situation of which has been noticed before.

'It may, however, be proper to remark, that in order to produce an extensive inundation, the combination of several circumstances is necessary: these are, the highest spring-tide, at the exact time of the moon being full; stormy weather or much rain; and a strong southerly wind, — Porth Cressa being particularly exposed on that quarter. Such a concurrence of elemental hostility is but seldom known; and hence, rather than to any human foresight or exertions, have the inhabitants of Hugh Town been hitherto preserved. It should also be observed that the rocks in and around Porth Cressa, how offensive soever to the eye, are of signal use in breaking the force of the waves as they roll into the bay, and thus protecting the sands from their violence. On the other hand, what has been may be; or, a greater storm than has yet been experienced here may accomplish what preceding visitations only threatened. When the Scilly islands shall be regarded with an interest commensurate to their importance, it may be hoped that this momentous subject will not be overlooked. However, unless some efficient measures be speedily adopted, the next generation may contemplate at St. Mary's what have so long been objects of curiosity amidst the Off-islands; — the formation of more islets by the separation of the land; — houses buried in the sand; and the water flowing, in confessed and indisputable sovereignty, over the subjected shore. *'

The proportion, however, of Scilliots who are drowned, to those who die in their beds, arises not from these occasional incursions of the ocean, but, to the honor of the islanders, from the fearless manner in which they are at all times ready to expose themselves for the purpose of assisting vessels in distress. Orphans, says Mr. Woodley, childless parents, widowed mothers, brotherless females, and others in whose breasts almost all the charities of consanguinity have been snapped by the terrible disasters of the sea, here meet the eye at almost every turn; and the simple narrative of some of the circumstances, which have been productive of so much devastation, might call forth a tear in eyes not commonly wont to be in the "melting mood." *Piloting*, indeed, is one of the chief sources of employment to the people of Scilly; and we are concerned to find that, in the exercise of this perilous employment, they sustain many oppressive and vexatious inconveniences, and are often ungratefully and grudgingly rewarded by merchants for their salvage.

'So enterprising are the islanders, that on the first view of an approaching vessel, especially in very violent weather, boats will put off from different islands at the same time, the crews vieing with each other which shall first get alongside and offer assistance. When a fleet or other great number of ships is seen off the islands, the natives make use of a very expeditious method of tendering their services to as many as possible. They launch from the shore, regardless of the weather, and crowded together in any manner, in some of their small open boats; then, rowing for the vessel nighest at hand, they get alongside as well as circumstances will permit; — leave a pilot in her, and proceed to the next; continuing

---

'* Of the only means, under Heaven, by which these effects can be prevented, — namely, by the construction of *dykes* and *marshes*, the curious reader may find some interesting particulars in the account of the alluvial land of the Danish islands in the Baltic and on the coast of Sleswick. See Professor Jameson's Notes to Cuvier's Theory of the Earth. Third edit. pp. 202—217.'

to diminish their numbers in this manner, until only two men are left in the boat, who then row for the shore, and subsequently share with the others on a division of the gross amount of their exertions.'

Fishing, in all its branches, is another of the principal employments of the islanders; as is the gathering of sea-weed, and the preparation of kelp for the London and Bristol markets. Of the latter, Mr. Woodley has given a full and interesting account, but it is too long for us to transcribe. — The inhabitants of the Scilly islands are said to be 'eminently distinguished' for their civility to strangers; their behaviour to whom is alike removed from the coarse rudeness of country boors in England, and the pert and disgusting familiarity too often assumed by the lower orders in towns and cities. Should it be our fate to be thrown on these desolate rocks, we doubt not that from the inhabitants we should experience every civility and all hospitality which their destitute and forlorn situation would allow: but, though we have travelled much in England, visited most of the large cities, and lived remote from the busy hum of the manufactory and the smoke of the steam-engine, among the "country boors" we have never experienced any of the coarse rudeness with which Mr. Woodley, we must presume, has been so unfortunate as to meet. On the contrary, we have generally remarked in these calumniated boors of England a native, though unpolished, courtesy of manners and demeanor; with a disposition to oblige, and to receive kindness without crouching or confer it without assumption. Nor, to say the truth, have we ever observed among the lower orders in our towns and cities any familiarity towards those of a higher station, who had not invited it by making the first advances; and such persons are not intitled to consider it as either 'pert' or 'disgusting.'

After a general account of the Scilly islands in the first part of this volume, their natural productions, the climate, the state of education, religion, morals, &c. among the inhabitants, Mr. Woodley, in the second part, takes the islands individually, and details the physical peculiarities of each. Various authors have described the Scilly islands, and Mr. Woodley has consulted them: but he rarely mentions any of them, except Dr. Borlase, otherwise than for the purpose of shewing his contempt of their labors.

ART. XI. *The English Master; or,* Student's Guide to Reasoning and Composition: exhibiting an Analytical View of the English Language; of the Human Mind; and of the Principles of Fine Writing. By William Banks, Private Teacher of Composition, Intellectual Philosophy, &c. 8vo. pp. 398. 10*s*. 6*d*. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

THIS volume is 'respectfully dedicated to the ladies and gentlemen whose intellectual education Mr. Banks has had the honor of conducting;' and he announces, in a fly-leaf advertisement which takes precedence of the title-page, that 'he continues to give lessons in ladies' schools and private families, agreeably to the method described in the introduction to the "English Master."' After so very significant a card, regularly dated, with his address, we confess that, by some ugly associations, puffing and quackery were uppermost in our thoughts, and we opened the volume with no favorable anticipation of its contents. We have, however, been agreeably disappointed. Mr. Banks, indeed, has but slender pretensions to originality, and he does not make them; but, having consulted the best authors, 'if he has not presented to his readers any new thoughts he has endeavoured to place old ones in a new light; or so grouped them together as to give them an air of novelty.' The style is neat, unaffected, and perspicuous; and we think that the volume will be found a valuable acquisition as well to private families as to schools, and not merely to English schools, peculiarly so called, but to classical schools, where the Greek and Latin languages are taught very often to the neglect of the English.

The *first* part treats of Language. After a rapid sketch of its origin and progress, and the causes of its diversity, with an historical view of our own language, Mr. B. gives an analysis of its structure, mainly relying on "The Diversions of Purley." Without going into any controversy, which in an elementary work would clearly have been improper, he might have referred to some of those writers who have dissented from Mr. Horne Tooke's theory; and particularly to Dugald Stewart, who assailed it with his wonted vigor and acuteness in the second volume of his "Philosophy of the Human Mind." *

The *second* part treats of 'Intellectual Philosophy;' 'of the Senses in general;' 'of the Passions; their Nature and Variety;' 'of the Intellectual Powers;' 'of Reasoning,'

---

* It has since been defended against this attack by Mr. Charles Richardson, in his "English Philology," a work of very considerable merit.

&c. &c. In this metaphysical portion of the book, we do not always find the requisite accuracy of definition and niceness of discrimination. Thus, under the heads of *Conception* and *Imagination*, we have the following remarks:

'*Of Conception.*

Some philosophers consider conception and imagination as only different names for the same faculty; but if by the term *faculty* we understand a different mode of operation, in what we denominate the mind, a slight attention to the subject will suffice to shew, that there is a difference. Imagination cannot be exercised without conception, but conception may, without imagination. These words, both in speech and in writing, are often used synonimously; this however is rather to be attributed to a want of precision in those who use them, than to a want of difference in the things to which they are applied.

Conception, I understand to be that power which the mind possesses, of presenting to itself the idea of any person, place, circumstance, thought, or train of thought, which constitutes part of its knowledge, with nearly the same clearness as when the object was originally present. It differs from memory; for a thing may be distinctly remembered *or recollected*, without our thinking of, or having present in the mind every idea necessary to constitute the whole of the original; but in conception the mind makes an effort to view every part, and does it in such a manner, that if the original object is an object of sight, the person making this effort, if a painter, can delineate, or if a poet, can describe it, so that his painting or description will resemble the original.

'When in speech or writing, any thing is described with which we are previously unacquainted, and we find ourselves capable of thinking what is the precise nature of the thing described, then too we are, with propriety, said to exercise conception.

'*Of Imagination.*

'Imagination, hail! attend my song,
Thyself be present, while I sing of thee,
That I thy nature truly may unfold,
And trace thy influence on the mind of men.
'Tis thine, from feelings, qualities, events,
Or varied scenes of nature, to combine
And form creations never known before.
By thee the mind recals from memory's stores,
Ideas of whate'er has once been seen,
Or felt, or thought, and from the motley group,
Judgment and taste select, direct, and sort,
Conformably to thy creating will.

'Though verse is not always consistent with that precision which is required in philosophical writings, yet the preceding lines contain a tolerably correct view of what I understand to be the nature of that operation of the mind which is denominated *imagination*.

nation. It is the peculiar province of this faculty to form new combinations.

'The difference which I understand to exist between conception and imagination, may be illustrated in the following manner. When a painter has beheld with attention any scene in nature, and afterwards makes an effort to recall to his mind its various parts so strongly, that he is able with his pencil to delineate the whole, I should say, that in this case he exercises conception. But should the same painter, from a fine tree, a lake, a river, a mountain, a bridge, a tower, &c. which he remembers to have seen in different places, form a beautiful picture, I should then say, that he exercises imagination. In like manner I should say, that conception was the power exercised by Sir W. Scott in those elegant and accurate descriptions which abound in his "Lady of the Lake," and in his other poetical writings; but that to imagination we must ascribe Milton's description of the garden of Eden, his battle of the angels, and, in short, the greater part of his Paradise Lost. The biographer who faithfully describes the various actions and occurrences in the person's life of whom he writes, exercises conception. But for many of the characters in the higher class of novels, we are indebted to imagination. Meg Merrilies, in Guy Mannering, is as much a creature of imagination as any of the characters in Paradise Lost.'

A very acute and skilful etymologist, Mr. W. Taylor of Norwich, has the following passage in his excellent little volume intitled "English Synonyms discriminated:"

"A man has *imagination* in proportion as he can distinctly copy in idea the impressions of sense: it is the faculty which *images* within the mind the phenomena of sensation. A man has *fancy*, in proportion as he can call up, connect, or associate at pleasure these internal images, (φανταζειν is to cause to appear,) so as to complete ideal representations of absent objects. Imagination is the power of depicting, and fancy of evoking and combining. The imagination is formed by patient observation, the fancy by a voluntary activity in shifting the scenery of the mind. The more accurate the imagination, the more safely may a painter or a poet undertake a delineation or a description without the presence of the objects to be characterized. The more versatile the fancy, the more original and striking will be the decorations produced." (English Synonyms, p. 242.)

When an artist delineates with his pencil any scene in nature which he recalls to mind, he copies in idea the impressions which he had before received; — he *images* the phænomena of sensation, and transfers them to his canvass. This, therefore, is an exercise of the *imagination*; and so are many of Sir Walter Scott's descriptions in "The Lady of the Lake:" but Milton's description of the garden of Eden, his battle of the angels, &c., are exercises of *fancy*.

By conception, Mr. Banks understands 'that power which the mind possesses of presenting to itself the idea of any person, place, circumstance, thought, or train of thought which constitutes part of its knowlege, with nearly the same clearness as when the object was originally present:'—but the mind may conceive what never was 'originally present,' and never existed; such as a man with three heads and four feet, centaurs and griffins, "gorgons and hydras, and chimeras dire;" —these fantastic conceptions require no existing original.

In a chapter on *Memory*, we find a similar want of precision. 'Every man's consciousness,' says Mr. B., 'informs him that he possesses a power of remembering, that is, of recognising when it is again presented, or of voluntarily recalling the idea of any object with which he was formerly acquainted.' —'When we consider memory as the power of recalling the objects of our knowlege, it may be viewed as voluntary or involuntary. To these distinctions we apply the terms Remembrance and Recollection.' Does Mr. B. mean to define *remembrance* as an exercise of voluntary, and *recollection* as an exercise of involuntary memory? According to Locke, "Memory is the power to revive again in our minds those ideas which, after imprinting, have disappeared or have been laid out of sight;" "remembrance is when the same idea recurs without the operation of the like object on the external sensory;" "recollection is when an idea is sought after by the mind, and with pain and endeavour found and brought again in view." The train of ideas, says Mr. W. Taylor, "revived by the memory, constitutes a remembrance. What sensibility is to sensation, memory is to remembrance. Reminiscence is the act of recovering, and recollection the act of combining remembrances. Those eminences, to which we attach the subordinate parts of an object, come first into reminiscence; when the intervening portions present themselves, the recollection is complete." (English Synon. p. 114.)*

---

* Mr. Banks mistakes in supposing that, before the appearance of Mr. Crabb's "Dictionary of Synonyms," we had nothing on the subject except Mrs. Piozzi's "British Synonymy." Dr. Trusler's work is better than that of Mrs. Piozzi, and was published earlier. Mr. Crabb's volume is considerably larger than that of Mr. Taylor, which is remarkably and *injudiciously* unassuming in its appearance, and was published three years before the production of Mr. Crabb. Its superiority consists in closer compression of matter, more exact and nicer discrimination of synonyms, and a wider range of etymological research, which the author's familiar acquaintance with the northern as well as the southern languages of Europe enabled him to take. We have, however, already given our opinion of these works, as they appeared.

Mr. B.'s *third* part treats of Composition, of the different kinds, both in prose and verse; of style, the causes of diversity in style; of precision, arrangement, harmony, &c.; and of the various figures of speech which are employed to give strength or decoration, such as comparison, metaphor, and allegory. With Blair's Lectures on Rhetoric, and Lord Kames's Elements of Criticism, we presume few young persons of a liberal education to be unacquainted; and not to have consulted them in preparing this division of his book would have been an unpardonable omission on the part of Mr. Banks: but, having made a comparison of his work with these, under several corresponding heads, we can so far say that he has *only* consulted, not servilely copied either. He has selected his illustrations from the writings of many living authors, and has produced a volume which is creditable to himself and may be useful to his scholars.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1823.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 12. *The Duke of Mantua*, a Tragedy. By ——. 8vo. Printed by Thomas Davison. 1823.

The disreputable trick practised in the title-page of this drama, in which, after the word 'By,' follows an etching of a half-masqued head of Lord Byron, will no doubt induce most persons to throw aside the pamphlet in disgust. To assist in the poor deception, the tragedy has no publisher's name affixed to it, but comes from the press of the printer who has usually sent forth his Lordship's works. Even in this age of quackery, so paltry an imposition as this must be generally scouted; and we are surprized that the writer, whoever he be, (for though we know not who he is, yet we know who he is *not*,) should have thrown away his drama in this manner, for it is by no means destitute of talent, and occasionally displays proofs of a rich poetical imagination. The following extract evinces some bold conceptions, and will bear us out in the opinion that we have expressed:

Enter Duke, Duchess, Hermione, Ridolfi.

Duke. We love these moon-lit walks, Hermione,
Whilst in her wane; you like her visage best,
Perchance, increasing. More I love to mark
Her gradual decay — retreating, coy,
And half aside, as if ashamed to meet
The full gaze of the sun.
Hermione. I love the waxing
Yet rather than the wane of yon pale light:

Like timid maid, when first her opening charms
Meet love's warm beam. Scarce on the wanton boy
She dares to gaze, till, bolder grown, her eye
Averted still, or half withdrawn, drinks in,
With silent ecstasy, love's treacherous glance.
Now his fond smile, full orb'd, the embolden'd sight
Enamour'd meets: her very being, essence,
And every faculty absorb'd — each thought
Rising impregn'd with love's fierce fire; anon
There comes a change — shy gleams succeed, her brow
Hath one light shade, scarce seen, but on its light
The darkness grows — love's brightest dream is o'er,
And his pale taper quench'd in utter gloom!
 Ridolfi. Ay, till another change. Yon fickle goddess
Her fond, fool'd swain entices, till enamour'd
E'en to his heart's last core; she then averts
Her love-impassion'd glance, and, scorning, shuns him!
 ' *Duchess.* If from deserted maid, Hermione,
Whose charms were withering in the fallow wane
Of an unprofited life, this speech forlorn
Had seem'd to ring the knell of her young hopes.
But when from rosy lips, and ardent youth,
It comes unlook'd for as a wintry chill
Beneath a summer sun. — This air blows keenly,
My locks fall with the dew — I think the night
Hath not its wonted soothness: thrice I shudder'd
As the cold breeze methought sigh'd on my bosom.
I must begone — Hermione, you go not,
'Tis the last moonlight you behold, mayhap,
In this brief stay; take a long parting, ere
Ye bid adieu — the Duke himself attends you:
With me, our brother his good presence grants,
Till your return.'

We must add that this drama betrays also some great inequalities.

ART. 13. *Ellen Gray; or, the Dead Maiden's Curse, a Poem.* By the late Doctor Archibald Macleod. 8vo. 3*s.* Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, Hurst and Co. 1823.

It would certainly be very desirable that a new law should be promulgated in the republic of letters, denouncing the use of forged and fictitious appellations, which are apt to deceive *innocent* country-readers, and sometimes give considerable trouble even to the critical police. Who, for instance, is to determine whether the individual, whose name is prefixed to this little poem, was ever an actually existent doctor; or whether he be what the Latins call "*umbra et fumus*?" From the style of the preface, we feel inclined to deny the entity of any such personage: — but, whether it be the production of a dead doctor, or of a living poet, the tale does no discredit to the pen from which it proceeded. It is, indeed, a little fantastical, and occasionally aims at humor without always reaching it: but it is told with considerable feeling, and a reasonable share of poetry.—The story is very simple. The hero, a young villager, deserts his mistress, Ellen, and falls in love with the bailiff's daughter; in consequence of which poor Ellen drowns herself. The following lines will remind the reader of Mr. Crabbe, who is evidently the model on which 'the late Dr. Macleod' has moulded his style.

> 'Next day the tidings to the cottage came
> That Hubert's heart confess'd another flame:
> That cold and wayward falsehood made him prove
> At once a traitor to his faith and love;
> That with our bailiff's daughter he was seen
> At the new Tabernacle on the green;
> Had join'd the Calvinistic flock, and there
> Renounc'd his prayer-book, yea, our Saviour's prayer,
> And if he left young Ellen's heart to bleed—
> Poor Ellen's heart to break—IT WAS DECREED!'

Art. 14. *Sebastian; a Tragedy.* By Henry Booth. 8vo. 5s. Hunter. 1823.

We have read this tragedy with pleasure: because, though it does not make pretensions to be ranked among the highest efforts of the dramatic muse, the talent which it displays is of a very respectable order; the diction is often elegant, and occasionally forcible; and the sentiments throughout are very creditable to the author. Its chief desideratum is the *vis dramatica;*—that strong tragic spirit which gives substantial life to the creatures of the poet's brain, and works on the reader's heart with the force of reality.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 15. *The Welsh Nonconformists' Memorial; or,* Cambro-British Biography; containing Sketches of the Founders of the Protestant Dissenting Interest in Wales. To which are prefixed, An Essay on Druidism, and Introduction of the Gospel into Britain. With an Appendix, &c. By the late Rev. William Richards, LL.D. Edited, with Notes and Illustrations, by John Evans, LL.D. &c. Islington. 12mo. 8*s.* Boards. Sherwood and Co.

This volume contains many interesting particulars of the lives of individuals who pursued the dictates of their conscience, through good report and evil report; and who, in times of intolerance and persecution, dared to think for themselves, and to preach what they thought. Though the names of some of them still retain their original and proper eminence, a great number have been almost forgotten even among their own countrymen; and the friends of religious freedom were therefore much indebted to Dr. Richards for collecting and arranging the memorials of those worthy men. The prefixed Essay on Druidism displays much research into the old Welsh poetry; and if it contains scarcely any thing that is novel, it may serve as an useful compendium for those who wish to know the little that is to be known on that curious subject.—

The introduction of the Gospel into Britain is followed by an account of Pelagius, and of the state of Christianity in Wales from Pelagius to Wickliffe. These essays are written in a plain sensible manner, and with considerable discrimination.

In an appendix, the editor has subjoined some smaller tracts published by Dr. Richards in his lifetime; of which the most curious are his reflections on allegorical preaching. We shall extract one or two passages, in which the Doctor gives specimens of spiritual interpretation, and makes very just comments on their vanity and absurdity.

' As to *Ruth*, the remarkable allegorization and spiritualization which her striking story has undergone, are so well known as hardly to need a particular description: one instance, however, may be given — Ruth, i. 1, 2.: " Now it came to pass in the days when the judges ruled, that there was a famine in the land; and a certain man of Bethlehem Judah went to sojourn in the country of Moab, he and his wife, and two sons; and the name of the man was Elimelech, and the name of his wife Naomi," &c. &c. In spiritualizing these words, it has been said, that "the believing church is Christ's *Naomi*, his sweet and pleasant one, and he is her *Elimelech*, her god and king. For her he forsook the mansions of plenty and delight (by the bye Judea was not a land of plenty when Elimelech left it); with her he sojourned in a Moabitish world, amongst enemies to the God of Israel; there he died an accursed death, to accomplish her salvation; there he was buried to purify the grave for her use; rose again, to trample on all her enemies; and is now gone to Bethlehem, the house of bread, to prepare a place for his Naomi, on her arrival from the land of Moab." This also has been deemed a striking and beautiful spiritual interpretation of the passage.' —

' In the book of *Judges* also many passages have undergone a similar process; and many more still from *Deuteronomy*, *Numbers*, *Leviticus*, *Exodus*, and *Genesis*. From the latter, *Leah's sore eyes* have been made to signify the blindness of the Jews, who could not see clearly, and therefore rejected Christ. And even the story of Rebecca's nurse, Deborah, in Gen. xxxv. 8., has been made to undergo the same kind of spiritualizing operation: Rebecca has been made to mean the believer; Deborah, the law; the death and burial of Deborah, the law's ceasing to have dominion over the believer. Moreover, the *oak*, there mentioned, has been made to denote the cross of Christ, which triumphs over the law, and *Bethel* made to intend the house of God, where the believer obtains the happy deliverance.

' Also in 2 Kings, iv. 38., &c., the *great pot* has been construed as denoting the Christian ministry; *wild gourds*, unsound doctrine; and the *meal*, the pure truth which operates as an antidote against error.

' I have known 1 Sam. xxx. 13. to have been spiritualized as follows: — the *Amalekite* was made to denote the *devil*; the *Egyptian*, an unconverted man: all unconverted men are servants of the devil. — His falling sick denoted a sinner under conviction, his master's leaving him in that case, denotes the devil's withdrawing from those that are under conviction, or concerned about their souls and spiritual state.'

This nonsense Dr. Richards matches by an excellent quotation from Alexander Ross's *Mystagogus Poeticus, or Muse's Interpreter;* which, as Ross's book is scarce and little known, our readers will perhaps thank us for transcribing for their amusement.

' [Text.] " Ganimedes." [Exordium.] " He was the King of Troy's son, who, whilst he was hunting, was caught up to heaven by an eagle, Jupiter's bird; and, because of his extraordinary beauty, Jupiter made him his cup-bearer. — Interpretation [or Skeleton of a Sermon]. 1. When Ganimedes was caught up to heaven, he let fall his pipe, on which he was playing to his sheep; so whilst we are carried up by divine raptures and contemplation, we must fling away all earthly delights. — 2. Whilst Ganimedes was piping on his cane, and keeping of his father's sheep, then was he caught up to heaven. God is never better pleased with us than when we are faithful and diligent in our calling; not the sad and melancholy, but the cheerful mind is fittest for God and heavenly raptures. — 3. Ganimedes (*Γαννύζαι μήτεν*) is one that delights in divine counsel, or wisdom; and wisdom is the true beauty of the mind, wherein God takes pleasure. — 4. Every eagle is not Jupiter's bird, as Ælian observeth, but that only which abstains from flesh and rapine, and that was the bird which caught up Ganimedes; so fleshly minds and thoughts set upon rapine and carnal pleasures are not fit to serve God, or to carry the soul up to heaven. — 5. The quick-sighted eagle is divine contemplation, or meditation, by which Ganimedes, the soul, is caught up to heaven. — 6. When, by holy raptures, we are carried up to heaven, the best nectar we can pour out to God is the tears of repentance and of a broken heart. — 7. Ganimedes was caught up by one eagle only; but if we have the true inward beauty of the mind, we shall be caught up in the air by legions of angels, to meet the Lord, and shall for ever serve him at his table in the kingdom of heaven. — 8. I wish that the Roman eagle would not delight so much in rapine and man's flesh as he doth; but rather endeavour to be carried up to heaven, that is, to their ancient dignity, the decayed and ruinated parts of their empire. — 9. As the eagle caught up Ganimedes, so the wings of a great eagle were given to the woman, Rev. xii., to carry her from the dragon's persecution: the great eagle was the Roman empire, whereof Constantine was the head, by whose power and help the church was supported. — 10. Our Saviour Christ is the true Ganimedes, the Son of the Great King, the fairest among the sons of men, the wisdom and counsel of his Father, in whom God delighted and was well pleased; who, by the power and on the wings of his divinity, was caught up to heaven, where he is pouring out his prayers and merit before God for us; and, like Aquarius, (to which Ganimedes was converted,) is pouring down the plentiful showers of his grace upon us. — 11. Vespasian set up the image of Jupiter; and Ganimedes caught by the eagle in the temple of peace; so the image of God and heavenly raptures are found in the soul wherein is the peace of conscience. — 12. As the eagle carried Ganimedes, so Moses compareth God to an eagle, who carried the Israelites on his wings through the desart. And St. Ambrose saith, (Serm. 62.) that Christ is the eagle who caught man from the jaws of hell, and hath carried him up to heaven." '

Dr. Richards very sensibly advises allegorizers and mystics to apply their comments to the Pagan mythology, or to the "Pilgrim's Progress," and not to profane Scripture by their unmeaning spiritualizings.

The author's remarks on Wickliffe and his followers, and his sketch of Michael Servetus, are written in a more serious and solemn manner, and shew that Dr. R. entertained the most just notions of religious liberty, and was impressed with feelings of warm and genuine humanity; honorable to him as a man, and creditable as a minister and expounder of the Gospel.

Dr. Evans's notes and observations, interspersed throughout the volume, are judicious and illustrative; such as might be expected from the author of the well-known "Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World."

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 16. *The Linnæan System of Conchology*, describing the Orders, Genera, and Species of Shells, arranged into Divisions and Families: with a View to facilitate the Student's Attainment of the Science. By John Mawe, Author of "Travels in Brazil;" "Treatise on Diamonds and Precious Stones;" Familiar Lessons on Mineralogy and Geology;" &c. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 222. Coloured, *2l. 2s. 6d.*, Plain, 1*l.* 1*s.* Longman and Co. 1823.

Introductions to conchology have of late years multiplied with such rapidity that we may well dispense with retracing their contents in systematic order. We mean, therefore, nothing like disparagement of the present very respectable publication, by confining our report of it within short limits; and the author's diligence and zeal, in procuring aids and facilities to the students and amateurs of natural science, are too well known to be particularized. The propriety of his adoption of the Linnæan arrangement of shells will, no doubt, be questioned by the admirers of the more recent distributions expounded by Lamarck; but the former is still recommended by its simplicity; and Mr. Mawe, by having recourse to subdivisions, has contrived to obviate much of the vagueness and confusion which arose out of the comprehensiveness of its categories: while he has likewise been particularly attentive to note the principal characteristic points of discrimination between such genera as may most readily be mistaken for one another. His plan, indeed, though partial, is well and neatly executed; and the figures, selected from specimens in his own cabinet, are faithful and elegant representations of their prototypes. To the definition of each genus, in its order, are subjoined some remarks on its distinctive characters, divisions, &c.; and a catasuppressing Mendicity, &c.; and of Montalvyn, the Benevolent Patriot, a Drama. 8vo. pp. 45. Cox.

Among the works announced at the end of this pamphlet as 'preparing for publication,' is a *Philosophical Analysis of the Principles of Human Nature*, by the same author. He will do well to pause, and ponder his steps, for the plunge once taken he will certainly be out of his depth. These 'Strictures' are the production, we presume, of a very young gentleman, who had too much confidence in himself to subject them to the scrutiny of some 'impartial and philosophical' friend. Common-place thoughts are no better concealed under the garb of pompous declamation, than are the manners of a countryman under the garb of a courtier.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 19. *Illustrations, Historical, Biographical, and Miscellaneous, of the Novels by the Author of Waverley*; with Criticisms, general and particular. By the Rev. Richard Warner, Rector of Great Chalfield, Wilts. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1823.

The industry and research of Mr. Warner have produced, in this modest little volume, an agreeable companion to the Waverley novels; for the historical portions of those works are certainly susceptible of much illustration and annotation, so great a mass of antiquarian and historical knowlege has the varied reading of the author enabled him to compress into them. These 'Illustrations,' however, seem to detract in some degree from the interest, and from what may be called the *integrity*, of the novels, by drawing nice distinctions between the historical and the fictitious parts, which, to form a perfect whole, ought to be intimately blended. Viewing these works as romances, we ought not to feel when we are reading Ivanhoe, for instance, that it is true that Richard returned from Palestine, but that his drinking-song in the cell of the friar of Copmanhurst is a mere fiction: — nor are we altogether satisfied that it is desirable to have the novelist's materials and tools thus exposed to view, any more than that it would add to the effect of a beautiful picture, if we were introduced into the painter's *studio*, and allowed to contemplate his oils and the canvass and the brushes.

In the present volume, Mr W. has wholly devoted himself to the romance of Ivanhoe, and furnishes much curious information on the habits and history of our ancestors, selected from very authentic sources, and distributed under various heads; as, *Ranks in Society, Hunting, Forest-Laws, Archery, Tournaments*, &c. &c.

Art. 20. *December Tales.* 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

Many strong symptoms of book-making are betrayed in this little volume; in which, to borrow a happy antithesis, what is original is not good, and what is good is not original. The tales possess little novelty and less interest, and this fault is not compensated by the sentiment, which is merely simple and na

The chapter intitled 'Recollections' is, if we mistake not, a mere hash from the pages of one of our brother-reviewers; and it is amusing enough to find the writer pronouncing opinions on works with which he is evidently acquainted only at second-hand. This same chapter also evinces a great affectation of knowlege, to which we feel confident that the author has but slender claims. According to his own account, he was a most extraordinary boy; 'solacing himself with the poetry of Claudian, Ausonius, Sidonius, Apollonaris, and Prudentius, and with the prose of Aulus Gellius, Macrobius, and Ammianus Marcellinus.' Did he ever read the anecdote of Macrobius and Dr. Johnson? — Again, 'the bulky and endless tomes of commentaries which the era of the Scaligers and Casaubons poured forth were refreshing to his view;' and 'the fathers were his boon companions.' It is certainly to be regretted that so profound and accomplished a scholar has thrown away any of his labor, and time, on such a perishable production as that which is now before us.

Art. 21. *An Appeal to the British Nation*, on the Humanity and Policy of forming a National Institution for the Preservation of Lives and Property from Shipwreck. By Sir William Hillary, Bart. 8vo. 1*s*. Whittakers. 1823.

The public-spirited and humane author of this pamphlet states that, having 'for many years, and in various countries,' witnessed numerous melancholy cases of shipwreck, his mind was powerfully impressed with a sense of the miseries thus occasioned not only to the primary victims of the storm, but often to those who have bravely attempted their rescue from destruction, and have shared it. Since his residence, however, on a part of the coast particularly exposed to these scenes of calamity, — he dates from Douglas in the Isle of Man, — their more frequent recurrence led him to advert to the beneficial consequences of a *National Institution* for the preservation of human beings under such circumstances, and for the reward and protection of those who may venture their lives in attempting to save others. He is not uninformed of the various means which have lately been devised for the relief of persons when shipwrecked: but he justly observes that much of the efficiency of these methods is prevented by the want, in many places and on many occasions, of the means of putting them in action, and of proper persons to direct and to act. He enforces these ideas by some observations founded on the general principle of humanity, and on the particular obligation imparted to those principles in a great commercial and insular empire, which must attract general concurrence, and ought to excite interest similar to that by which he is actuated; and he then suggests the establishment of a National Institution, having for its objects,

'*First*, The preservation of human lives from shipwreck; which should always be considered as the first great and permanent object.

'*Secondly*, Assistance to vessels in distress, which often immediately connects itself with the safety of the crews.

'*Thirdly*, The preservation of vessels and property, when not so immediately connected with the lives of the people, or after the crews and passengers shall have been rescued.

'*Fourthly*, The prevention of plunder and depredation in case of shipwreck.

'*Fifthly*, The succour and support of those persons who may be rescued; the promptly obtaining medical aid, food, clothing, and shelter, for those whose destitute situation may require such relief, with the means to forward them to their homes, friends, or countries. The people and vessels of every nation, whether in peace or war, to be equally objects of this Institution; and the efforts to be made, and the recompenses to be given for their rescue, to be in all cases the same as for British subjects and British vessels.

'*Sixthly*, The bestowing of suitable rewards on those who rescue the lives of others from shipwreck, or who assist vessels in distress; and the establishment of a provision for the destitute widows and families of those who unhappily lose their lives on such occasions.'

Sir William then enters into a variety of details respecting the mode of establishing and regulating the proceedings of the Institution, which shew that he has not cursorily and slightly considered the matter; and he expresses a reliance on its being supported by the mercantile interest of the country, which we should suppose the motives of *interest* alone would prompt: as well as by the humane and considerate of all classes, which we should also suppose their feelings would sufficiently ensure. We hope that the benevolent Baronet will not be disappointed in his expectations, and that he will himself receive the complimentary reward to which his exertions and object intitle him. It would occupy too much of our space to enter more minutely into the proposition, and indeed we prefer to recommend the pamphlet itself to general perusal.

Art. 22. *The Antiquities of Free-Masonry; comprizing* Illustrations of the Five Grand Periods of Masonry, from the Creation of the World to the Dedication of King Solomon's Temple. By George Oliver, Vicar of Clee, in the County of Lincoln; P. G. Chaplain for the same County; &c. 8vo. pp. 366. 12*s*. Boards. Whittakers. 1823.

The reverend author of this pious effusion appears to be well read in the antiquarian mysticism of various preceding writers, who think that the most absurd opinions can be superinduced by a parade of indiscriminate quotations and irrelevant pedantry, without any critical appreciation of authorities, any attention to chronological order, any distinction between fact and hypothesis, or any regard to probability, evidence, or history. The cabalists, the astrologers, the oneirocritics, and the alchemists, have never defended wilder conjectures, or speculations more baseless, than this well-meaning advocate of free-masonry. He confounds three wholly distinct things under the name of free-masonry: — 1. The corporation of builders; 2. The spiritual doctrine of those mystics, who teach the moral art in metaphors derived from the technical language of builders; 3. The secret society combined by private signs of recognition, which has established lodges in the principal towns of Europe. This last confederation alone can with propriety be termed free-masonry.

Masons, or builders, (the word is derived from the French *maison*, house,) may be traced in early times among the Egyptians, the Tyrians, and the inhabitants of Jerusalem: but it cannot even be proved that these workmen had formed themselves into a purse-club, or guild, for relieving each other's necessities, and much less that they had private signs of recognition; and therefore the historic notices relative to the craft, or trade, of builders, form no part of the antiquities of free-masonry.

The spiritual doctrine of those persons, who have metaphorically employed the word *edification*, and other analogous metaphors, to denote proficiency in the moral art, (if we may thus speak,) may be traced in some portions of Scripture; but these sallies of eloquence, natural in either an antient or a modern sermon, do not prove that the seventy disciples were *apprentices*, or the apostles *fellow-craftsmen*, or Christ the *grand-master*, of a masonic society.

Secret societies may have existed among the antients under the name of Mysteries, such as the Eleusinian: but, although it be probable, it is by no means certain, that the initiated had private signs of recognition. In as much, however, as a connection can be established between such antient secret societies and the modern free-masonry, some light is thrown on the origin and antiquities of the order.

Preston, in his well-known Illustrations of Masonry, of which so many editions have been printed, has quoted a law (p. 186.) passed in the third year of Henry VI., which forbids "the congregations and confederacies made by the masons in their general assemblies, whereby the good cause and effect of the statutes of labourers be openly violated:" but this law relates only to the corporation of builders, the object of whose combination was to raise wages, and by no means proves that free-masonry existed in the time of Henry VI. Indeed, we suspect that no authentic traces can any where be found of a mysterious combination anterior to the year 1510; nor of any secret symbols and signs of recognition being in earlier use. We would therefore begin the antiquities and history of free-masonry with Henry Cornelius Agrippa, who in 1510 came to London, (see his *Opuscula*, vol. ii. p. 1073.) and founded a society for alchemical purposes, similar to a secret association which he had previously instituted at Paris in concert with Landolfo, Brixianus, Xanthus, and other students at the University of that metropolis. The members of these societies, as we formerly observed, (vol. xxv. p. 304.) did agree on *private signs of recognition*, and planted in various parts of Europe corresponding affiliated lodges for the prosecution of the occult sciences. This practice of initiation, or secret incorporation by means of private signs of recognition, thus and then (as we suspect) *first* introduced, has been handed down to our own times, and constitutes the essence of free-masonry. These Rosicrucians, for that was the name by which the primitive free-masons affected to call themselves, had such great success in Germany that they planted lodges in almost all the university-towns of that studious country; and they quickly invented an imaginary pedigree for the fraternity, which was fabled to be derived from Solomon.

Rosicrucian societies were early instituted in England, where they seem first to have acquired the name of Free-masons: but in what manner the coalition was accomplished, between the corporation of builders and the Rosicrucians, remains enigmatical. Queen Elizabeth is stated to have been jealous of the assemblies of the masons, who were probably in the Catholic interest: but that the masons in her times had adopted the private signs of recognition in use among the Rosicrucians does not appear. We incline to think that they were not yet introduced; and indeed that no Rosicrucian societies struck deep root in England before the reign of James I., who set the earliest example of the initiation of a sovereign. "*Intellegetis itaque inter acta illius regis unum maxime eminere,*" says Lord Bacon in his Atlantis, "*illud est fundatio, sive institutio, ordinis cujusdam, et societatis, quem nos* DOMUM SALOMONIS *vocamus.*" In many other passages of that singular work, various symbols of the free-masons are specified, and their vow of secresy is mentioned; so that it can scarcely be denied that King James and Lord Bacon were free-masons; and that Lord Bacon, whose learning would have detected any splendid earlier traces of the order, ascribed the very foundation and institution of it in England to that monarch. Indeed, the unauthenticated tradition that a Welsh king, named Carausius, patronized free-masonry, and appointed Saint Alban grand-master, has somewhat of the appearance of being an allegorical description of the patronage of the reigning monarch, and of his chancellor, who resided near the town of Saint Alban's. Such "cunningly devised fables" have been adopted with too little criticism by the late worthy Mr. Preston, in his valuable "Illustrations," and by the present equally unsuspecting and apparently respectable author.

Mr. Oliver can discover free-masonry so early as in the garden of Eden. 'The principles of speculative masonry,' he informs us, p. 46., 'which had been communicated to Adam in paradise, were never by him forsaken after having tasted the bitter fruit of the forbidden tree; and as his progeny increased, he communicated to them the divine precepts and injunctions which were enfolded in that pure and sublime science. When men became numerous upon the earth, the evil spirit of darkness was very busily engaged in the corruption of their morals; and succeeded in working up the malevolent passions in the heart of Cain, until he apostatized from masonry, and slew his brother Abel.'

A little farther on we are told, p. 70., that Pythagoras, who introduced masonry into England, was taught the elements of geometry in Egypt: — but what evidence exists that Pythagoras visited England, or introduced masonry any where?

The fourth chapter is consecrated to a view of masonry from Enoch to the Universal Deluge. Here, again, the author professes to know the unknowable. He says that Enoch called a special assembly of masons, built a temple eighty-one feet high, (so marvellously precise is Mr. Oliver's information,) and was translated from his lodge on earth into another in heaven. After the deluge had subsided, masonry was revived by means of a pillar of stone, on which Enoch had engraved its secrets.

This work is no doubt intended to consist of many volumes, as it now conducts the history of free-masonry only to the building of Solomon's temple, concerning which a great deal of intelligence is given that is not to be found in the Bible. In one respect, the author is not faithful to the principles of masonry, which tolerate the admission, as brethren, of persons differing from each other in religious opinions; whereas Mr. O. insists on a mystical veneration for the sacred books as essential to the formation of the true free-mason.

The papers of Elias Ashmole, deposited in the British Museum, are likely to contain some authentic particulars of the original introduction and progress of free-masonry in England; concerning which a work of sound criticism is still a desideratum.

Art. 23. *Beauties of ancient Eloquence;* being a Collection of scarce and valuable Specimens of elegant Orations, interesting Extracts, and Anecdotes of eminent Persons, from the most approved Historians. The whole compiled and arranged by Caroline Maxwell. Embellished with Lithographic and Aqua-tinta Engravings. 8vo. pp. 464. M'Gowan. 1823.

As to the engravings with which this work is *embellished*, a clever school-boy would dip his finger in the ink-stand and daub such figures on the wall. The 'extracts' are said, in the same breath, to be 'scarce,' and yet to be 'taken from the most approved historians;' — whose works certainly are not scarce. Such compilations may while away an idle hour, but it is better to direct the attention of children to the connected and instructive pages of the biographer and the historian himself.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a long letter from Captain Forman, in reference to our late account (Number for July) of his pamphlet on the Tides. Though we have not room to insert it, we most sincerely assure him that we have no wish to keep back his arguments in support of his theory: but we cannot prolong the discussion, for we feel that it would be altogether useless to attempt to convince him that he has certainly taken a false view of the question. We confess, at the same time, that we are unable to throw any light on the subject of the tides, beyond what is to be found in the works of the distinguished authors who have written on it;

and if (as we before observed) all these volumes will not assist Captain Forman in comprehending the theory, it is not to be expected that we can do it in the space of two or three pages.

We repeat that the power of the sun's attraction on the earth is greater than that of the moon in a very high ratio, *i. e.* nearly as 154 to 1, although the effect of the latter on the tides is nearly 3½ times greater; and the reason is, as we have already stated, that it is not to the actual power of attraction of either body that we owe our tides, but to the difference of their attraction as referred to the centre and to the surface. In round numbers, the distance of the moon from the earth may be stated at 60 semi-diameters of the latter; and the mass of the sun to that of the moon is as 23090391 to 1. Also, the distance of the sun from the earth is about 23500 semi-diameters. Therefore, the power of the moon will be to that of the sun, in its effect on the tides, as $\left(\frac{1}{23499^2} - \frac{1}{23500^2}\right) 23090391$ to $\frac{1}{59^2} - \frac{1}{60^2}$; or nearly as 10 to 3. This is what is meant by the writers to whom Captain Forman refers; not that the actual power is greater in that ratio; and it is thus we 'explain in what way the moon with a smaller power can produce a greater effect.'

The question proposed merely for our amusement we must beg to decline, having sufficient amusement without it: but we will just observe, *en passant*, that we *do not admit* the power of the earth on the moon to be greater than that of the sun; for we assert that it is much less. We also still maintain that Kepler's law, of equal areas being described in equal times, is a necessary consequence of Newton's theory of Celestial Mechanics, and is as demonstrable as any proposition in Euclid's Elements of Geometry, and nearly as simple. As we said above, however, if all that has been written on these subjects will not convince Captain F., we are quite sure that we shall not be able to satisfy him. We are however, desirous that he should believe that we are what we profess to be, impartial advocates for truth and rationality; and that it is this motive which induces us to support the Newtonian doctrine and reject that of our correspondent: of whom we now take leave, and like him, we hope, 'with perfect good will.'

We cannot, at this moment, give a satisfactory answer to *A Clerical Reader*'s inquiry.

The consideration of other letters is unavoidably postponed.

Our coadjutor's answer to the letter from Windsor has not yet reached us.

*** The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Monthly Review will appear with the Number for September, on the 1st of October.

❧

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
HUNDRED AND FIRST VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Mémoires de la Société Linnéenne de Paris*, &c.; *i.e.* Memoirs of the Linnéan Society of Paris, preceded by its History, from 1788, the Period of its Foundation, to the Year 1822, inclusive. Volume the First. 8vo. pp. 741. With 4to. Atlas. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 18s.

When we consider the number and eminence of French and of foreign naturalists whose names are enrolled in the list of this learned Association, we cannot but express our surprize that, on this side of the water, we have heard so little of its existence or proceedings; and the rather because any marked honors bestowed on the memory of the Swedish naturalist, or his school, in the very capital of France, bespeak a sense of justice and generosity which could scarcely have been anticipated from a sort of exclusive admiration of *Tournefort* and *Buffon*. The abortive attempts, however, to resuscitate the Society during the revolutionary war, and the non-publication of its Transactions until the present days of peace, will in a great measure account for the tardy propagation of its fame.

The volume before us is divided into four parts, intitled, *History of the Society*, *Memoirs*, *Literature applied to the Natural Sciences*, and *Biography*. The Memoirs occupy by far the larger portion of the publication: but the History comprizes references to the Memoirs, and to other works and papers penned by members of the Society, — a Narrative of the Origin, interrupted Progress, and final Organization of the Establishment, — Lists of the different Descriptions of Members, — and a Catalogue of Books, &c. consigned to its Repositories. The two grand public meetings of the Society are fixed for the 24th of May, the anniversary of *Linné's* birth, and the 28th of December, which recalls the death of *Tournefort*. The former is signalized by an herborizing excursion, by the reading of communications, and by a dinner, at which the members wear a sprig of *Linnæa Borealis*. At the other annual meeting, the Secretary recapitulates the proceedings of the year, the prizes are distributed, and the *éloges* of departed members are pronounced. On the opening of each public sitting, and at noon precisely, the Secretary makes a note of the indications of the barometer, thermometer, and hygrometer, and of the prevailing meteors. The ordinary meetings, which are attended by the resident members, take place on the first and third Tuesday of each month; and the officers are, a President, two Vice-Presidents, a Permanent Secretary, an Assistant-Secretary, (who also performs the functions of Registrar,) and a Treasurer. The full complement of resident members is forty; but the number of those who are designated *Honorary*, *Auditorial*, and *Corresponding*, is indefinite; and ladies are admitted under the title of *Free Associates*. The President now is the Count *De la Cépède*, whom *Buffon* styled his *adopted son*; the Secretary is M. *Thiébaut de Berneaud*: the actual number of Free Associates, by a happy classical coincidence, is exactly that of the Muses; and one of them happens to have *Uranie* for a fifth Christian name. The *Auditorial* or *Hearing Members* are at present only sixteen; and they are selected from the most distinguished pupils, artists, and amateurs. Successful competitors for any of the prizes proposed by the Society are likewise ranked among them. It is intended to publish a volume of Memoirs once in the year. The present opens with the *Procès Verbal* of the sitting on the 28th of December, 1821, including the President's address, which is couched in measured and somewhat rhetorical diction, but possesses at least the merit of brevity. Before we advert to the Memoirs, we may briefly touch on a few incidental facts or observations suggested by the other writings of their respective authors.

M. *Beaunier*, in his Practical Treatise on the Management of Bees, gives the same explanation of the formation of wax and propolis that will be found in *Huber's* more popular work: but he claims the priority of the discovery; and the Society is of opinion that it cannot be reasonably denied to him. Probably, however, both the observers may have arrived at the same conclusions without any interchange of ideas. — Dr. *Vallot*, of Dijon, has ascertained that *Cynanchum Monspeliacum* is indued with the same sort of irritability as *Apocynum androsemifolium*; and that, when in full blossom, it retains insects within its calyx by compressing their proboscis. The *Musca radicum*, in particular, which is very partial to the honied liquor, no sooner insinuates its trunk under the stamens than the flower collapses, as if by a convulsive movement; and the more the insect struggles to get free, the more strongly it is secured. The Doctor likewise states that, on the evening of the 4th of September, 1821, one of the gardeners attached to the Botanic Garden at Dijon happening to strip some plants of *Datura arborea* of their faded and torn leaves, a violent shock in the hand occasioned the squirting of a drop of the peculiar juice of the shrub into his left eye, when that organ was affected with the most excruciating pain. The application of spring-water appeased the symptoms; but, during three days, the pupil continued in a state of preternatural dilatation, and insusceptible of contraction even in the most intense light of the sun; and it did not recover its proper tone till repeatedly laved with cold water. — M. *Perrottet* has introduced into French Guiana, and with every prospect of success, the culture of *Dolichos bulbosus*; the root of which is eaten by the Javanese and the inhabitants of the Phillipine islands, either raw or boiled like potatoes. It readily vegetates on any soil, but prefers one that is slightly moist; and it attains to maturity in three months. The writer has also revived the hopes of the growers of black pepper in the same colony, by supplying them with a species of *Erythrina*, on which the plant mounts and grows with rapidity. — M. *Borghers* has introduced into France a remarkable variety of the vine, from Ischia, which yields three crops in the year; and the first two of them will ripen even in the most northerly situations in which the grape is matured.

The first Memoir is intitled, *Discourse on the essential Principle of Order, in Natural History, and particularly in Botany*; by M. LEFEBURE. — After having preluded with some metaphysical reasoning concerning the identity of *order* and *truth*, the author laments, as all men of science must, the cumbersome and unwieldly extent of the artificial botanical nomenclature; and he likewise exposes the unsatisfactory arrangement of *Jussieu*, which has been so loudly vaunted as *a natural order*. His own method, which he terms the *Floral*, may be superior to either, and certainly has the recommendation of simplicity: but we are incompetent to appreciate its details without perusing his *Système Floral*, and his *Clef du Jardin de l'Univers.* For the present, we need only to mention that he ranks all plants under four great divisions, namely, *Compound*, *Polypetalous*, *Monopetalous*, and *Perigonous*.

'This first division of flowers into four primitive essences is a phænomenon highly worthy of remark, for it discloses the unexpected truth that the two classical analyses or partial systems, the one founded by *Tournefort*, on the corolla, and the other by *Linné*, on the stamens, so far from being opposed to each other, form only one, being in reality no more than two elementary conceptions which belong to the system of nature. Had it been in the power of these men of genius to have concerted their operations, the former would have been convinced that his families, justly denominated Natural, were already in fact distributed into the four capital divisions; and that they lay there, not indeed perfectly distinguished from one another, but waiting, if we may be allowed the expression, until his instinctive talents for classification should complete their definitions by references to their essentially discriminating attributes. *Tournefort*'s merit is only the greater for having succeeded in disentangling their characteristic family-features, in the midst of the confusion which prevailed among flowers before the institution of this primary division. The second would have equally perceived that, by following the numerical progression in the stamens, they became of themselves assorted into a regular series, merely by the effect of the limitation of the families, distinctly determined in each of these divisions; and his system, which is natural as far as the analysis of the stamens is concerned, would not have presented to the eye certain transpositions, which disfigure, without invalidating, its structure.'

All this may be correct: but we should have preferred a tabular view of the proposed method to abstract disquisition, and the repetition of general assertions. We may, however, venture to remark that the cognizance of characters derived from the *fruit* must frequently be attended with inconvenience, because the stamens and the fruit are not simultaneously matured.

Doubts proposed to Naturalists concerning the Instability of the Forms of those Bodies which we distinguish into Genera and Species; by M. GIROD DE CHANTRANS. — From the remarkable changes which take place on various plants and animals, in consequence of change of climate, domestication, and other circumstances, M. DE CHANTRANS is disposed to regard many of our generic and specific distinctions with a sceptical eye. His illustrations are chiefly borrowed from the cereal grasses, leguminous plants, the types of former races of organized beings still existing in calcareous strata, and the diversities even of the human species. The corollary which he would deduce is, that we should be less solicitous than heretofore to multiply the vocabulary of natural history, on minute or frivolous distinctions; and that, particularly in botany, we should more diligently search for approximations of families and species than for their differences.

General Reflections on Life, and on the System of Organic Molecules; by M. J. P. Gasc. — This essay, which occupies nearly one hundred pages, and bespeaks much sound logic and metaphysical acumen, may perhaps be deemed no work of supererogation in a country where the principles (or rather the extravagant fancies) which it impugns have been long advocated by men of education and talents. Its main object is to expose the futility of some of the leading theories with respect to the vital principle, including *Buffon*'s reveries concerning organic molecules; and to establish the general positions, that vitality is not the result but the cause of organization, and a distinct power, or principle, of which the essence is just as little known to us as that of gravitation or electricity, and that the communication of life, and the impregnation of animal embryos, are mysteries placed far beyond the reach of our very limited and imperfect intellect. Few sedate inquirers, we apprehend, will refuse to acquiesce in such sentiments.

Notice of the Insects which are found on the Vine, or live at its Expence; with the Indication of the Parasitical Plants of that Shrub; by J. N. Vallot, M.D., *Secretary to the Academy of Dijon*, &c. — Twenty-eight species of insects are here particularized by their Linnéan designations and synonyms, and are in most cases accompanied by useful references to the authors who have treated of their structure and habits. The cryptogamous parasites are *Erincum vitis*, and two species of *Sphæria*.

Catalogue of Plants collected in the Islands of the Archipelago, and the Shores of the Euxine, in the Years 1819 and 1820; by J. Dumont d'Urville. — Being attached to the French navy, M. d'Urville devoted his hours of leisure to the prosecution of his botanical pursuits; and the facilities afforded to him by Professor *Desfontaines*, with the inspection of the extensive herbariums in Paris, have enabled him to particularize 901 species, to the best known of which are annexed suitable references and synonyms. Among the new or rare articles in this enumeration, are *Melica caricina*, *Phaleris crypsoides*, *Secale glaucum*, *Lycopsis glomerata*, *Thapsia proalta*, *Smyrnium ramosum*, *Pimpinella nodosa*, *Allium Græcum*, *Dianthus giganteus*, *Silene densiflora*, *Arenaria pubescens*, *Sideritis remota*, *Mentha tomentosa*, *Origanum parviflorum*, *Lepidium angulosum*, *Crepis ramosissima*, *Onopordum caulescens*, &c. &c. The names of the marine plants collected by the author are designated by M. *Lamouroux*, professor of natural history at Caen; and they amount to upwards of forty species, or varieties, of which about one-fourth may be regarded as non-descripts. From this list, it should seem that the ulvaceous plants are much more abundant than the *fuci* in the Black Sea; and that numerous genera, common in most seas, are entirely wanting in the Euxine.

Muscology, or a Treatise on Mosses; by the late Palisot de Beauvois. — The writer's views are here only partially unfolded by himself, death having removed him from the scientific world in the midst of his labors, and the remaining portion of his plan having been sketched by the hand of a friend. His proposed arrangements appear to be the result of much elaborate investigation: but, as they occasionally proceed on erroneous notions of the organization of the minute and delicate plants in question, and as some of our British cryptogamists are busied with a more correct exposition of their genera, we may, for the present, waive the farther consideration of the subject.

Dissertation on the Plant that deliquesces in Water, and on the different Denominations bestowed on Nostoch, with an Explanation of some Alchemical and Cabalistical Expressions; by M. Vallot, M.D. at Dijon. — According to Dr. V., the equivocal subject of this paper is not of uncommon occurrence, yet was not distinctly recognized in the methodical nomenclature till near the end of the 17th century; although it is obscurely "shadowed forth" by the alchemists, who delighted in the language of mystery and paradox. The erudition which Dr. V. displays, on such a circumscribed field of investigation, is rather minute than curious or important; and, after all, we are left considerably in the dark as to the origin of the term *Nostoch*. The vegetable substance to which it is now applied appears to have passed with some for the residue of shot stars, or for an earthy spume, or dew; while others confound it with manna, honey-dew, or even gossamer.

Recapitulation of the Opinions advanced by modern Naturalists relative to the Plant called Nostoch; by M. Thiébaut de Berneaud. — These few pages, intended as a supplement to the preceding memoir, refer to the opinions of *Réaumur*, *Ingenhousz*, *Fontana*, *Corti*, *Scherer*, *Corradori*, &c. Should the statements of the last-mentioned patient observer prove to be correct, this said Nostoch may be considered as a true vegetable Proteus; undergoing several metamorphoses, according to the humidity of the soil, the temperature of the atmosphere, the age of the plant, &c.; and assuming, under variable circumstances, the character of *Tremella verrucosa*, *Lichen rupestris*, *fascicularis*, *gelatinosus*, &c. MM. *Girod de Chantrans*, *Vaucher*, and *Bivona*, rank it among the polypi; while *De Lamarck* and *Decandolle* positively assign to it a vegetable structure: but others regard it as a link between the animal and vegetable creation.

Short Account of the Oak-Chapel of Allouville, in the Country of Caux (Lower Seine); by M. A. L. MARQUIS, Professor of Botany at Rouen. — For such of our readers as may be desirous of making a pilgrimage to this rustic shrine, the wooden walls of which are conjectured to be eight or nine hundred years old, we shall extract the most important part of the Professor's description:

'The circumference of the Allouville oak, above the roots, is eleven meters, and eight meters and a half at a man's height. Its elevation in no respect corresponds to its thickness: but it is chiefly with regard to breadth that its top is remarkable, enormous branches shooting from the trunk at two meters and a half from its base, and spreading out horizontally, so as to cover with their shade a great extent of space. The trunk, from the roots to the summit, presents a well-defined conical form; and the interior of this cone is hollow throughout its length. Several openings, of which the largest is situated internally, afford access into this cavity. All the central parts having been long since destroyed, it is only by the external layers of the alburnum, and by the bark, that this aged child of the earth at present subsists, still full of vigor, garnished with thick foliage, and loaded with acorns.

'Such is the tree of Allouville, considered in its natural state: but the hand of man has stamped on it the impress of a still more interesting character, and united the sentiments of religion with that respect which antiquity naturally inspires. The lower part of the cavity has been transformed into a chapel, of about two meters in diameter, carefully wainscotted and veined; the image of the Virgin decorating the altar; and a grated door closing the humble sanctuary. Above the chapel, and shut in the same manner, is a small chamber, containing a bed, a habitation worthy of some new Stylites, accessible by a staircase that winds round the trunk. Its summit, which exhibits, at the point where it terminates, the diameter of a very large tree, coated with shingles, and covered with a pinnacled roof, forms a spire, surmounted with an iron cross, which shoots up in a picturesque manner from the middle of the foliage, like that of a venerable hermitage above the wood which surrounds it. — The fissures which are observable in different parts of the tree, as well as the spire, are completely covered with shingles; which, by standing in the stead of the bark, doubtless contributes to its preservation.

'Above the entrance to the chapel is the following inscription:

ERIGÉE PAR M. L'ABBÉ DUDÉTROIT, CURÉ D'ALLOUVILLE,
EN L'ANNÉE 1696.

Over the door of the upper chamber, we read,

A NOTRE DAME DE LA PAIX.

At certain stated periods of the year, service is performed in this chapel.

On Vegetable and Animal Nutrition, with some Remarks on the Pith and on the Root-Collar; by M. J. J. MAURICET.— The first question discussed in this paper is, whether digestion can be predicated of vegetables as well as of animals? and it is solved by a reference to the definition of the term. If a stomach be understood as essential to the process of digestion, it is obvious that this process cannot be attributed to plants, which have no such central organ; but if by digestion be meant any process in virtue of which an organized being draws nutritive principles from the substances around it, and transforms them into its own substance, the existence of such a power cannot be denied to vegetables; and it is in this more enlarged acceptation that the author makes use of the term. Some of the more imperfect animals, he observes, (such as the *rhyzostoma*,) take up their aliment in the same manner with plants. The assimilation of the food, too, is much more simple in vegetables than in the generality of animals, though scarcely more than in the polypus. Again, the existence of the greater part of animals can be maintained only by the reception of organized matter into their system, whereas plants subsist principally on air and water. The functions of circulation and respiration, likewise, are more complicated in the animal than in the vegetable world; and it is particularly worthy of remark that animals, under all circumstances, absorb oxygen gas, and exhale carbonic acid gas; while vegetables exhibit this phænomenon only when they are withdrawn from the influence of light: for, when exposed to the latter, they decompose the carbonic acid gas, retaining its carbon, and parting with the oxygen. With regard to absorption and exhalation, they are elementary or preparatory processes of nutrition, and common to both departments of organization: but secretion in plants seems to be scarcely distinct from exhalation. All the organs of animals are subjected to the nutritive functions, and are renewed within certain periods of time: but parts of plants become inert, or decay before the vitality of the plant is destroyed. The nutritive functions of animals seldom experience any very sensible intermission of action; whereas in vegetables they are often nearly suspended in winter, without affecting the health of the individual. Lastly, the organs of nutrition, situated externally in vegetables, are deeply concealed in animals. The pith, indeed, and the root-collar in plants, have been regarded by some persons as internal organs of nutrition, or centres of vitality: but all that we can legitimately deduce from facts and appearances is, that the root-collar is the medial line, or point of communication, between the ascending and descending portions of the nourishment; and it is well known that the pith may be removed, or obliterated, without destroying, or apparently affecting, the vegetation of a tree. — Such are the principal points of analogy and difference, on which the memorialist slightly touches with the view of accounting for the appearances of animal and vegetable subsistence, and from which some important conclusions may obviously be drawn.

Essay on the Absorption of Roots, and of Bodies capable of being absorbed; by Professor TRONCIN. — These observations convey little new information: but the Professor states, as an extraordinary fact, the exhaustion of peculiar juices by a continuous succession of the same kind of crop; and he conjectures, somewhat darkly, that it may be effected by an alteration in the gaseous state of the soil.

Exposition of the Botanical Principles and of the System of Vegetable Physiology, which Theophrastus taught in his private Courses of Instruction. By M. ARSENNE THIÉBAUT DE BERNEAUD. — From the treatise which Theophrastus composed on plants, though transmitted to us in an imperfect form, we may infer that he had directed his attention with much diligence to their production, growth, structure, and properties; and that he endeavored to class upwards of five hundred species, or varieties, by their affinities and relations: but his general divisions of *ligneous* and *herbaceous*, and his subdivisions of *pot-herbs*, *frumentaceous*, *oleaginous*, and *succulent* plants, were still very remote from philosophical accuracy. His tract on the cancer of vegetables, though also imperfect, may be regarded as almost the only relic on vegetable physiology which antiquity has bequeathed to us; and in this respect it is a valuable document. In the course of his researches, he arrived at the conclusion that plants are endued not only with life but with sexuality; and a passage is quoted from this writer which establishes the extraordinary fact, that the perspicacity of the antient naturalists had revealed the grand basis of the Linnean arrangement of the vegetable kingdom, and at a period when the use of the microscope was unknown.

We cannot accompany the author through the remainder of his exposition; but we shall observe that he is abundantly partial to the sage of Eresus, whom he would willingly represent as incapable of asserting any absurdities; all which he very unceremoniously lays to the charge of his copyist. That the latter may have mutilated and distorted his writings is extremely probable: but we are scarcely intitled to ascribe to this source all that may be erroneous in the lucubrations of the philosopher.

Memoir on the Means to be adopted for the Preservation and Culture of Vegetables, during protracted Voyages; by M. S. Perrottet. — The methods here suggested are such as the writer found, in the course of his practical trials, to be best calculated to attain his object, but which, without the most assiduous and anxious attentions on his part, would have proved unavailing. The judicious use of tarpaulins, during the washing of the decks, and in rough weather, to screen the plants from the contact of spray, appears to have been of eminent service; and the waterings were duly regulated by the exigencies of the climate.

Sketch of the Culture of Land in the Islands of Java and Sumatra, with a Summary of the Advantages with which a similar Mode of Husbandry might be attended in Cayenne and French Guiana; by the Same. — Notwithstanding a marked coincidence of latitude and soil between the eastern and the western regions specified in the title, M. Perrottet was forcibly struck with the great inferiority of agriculture in the French settlements: which he ascribes to the supineness of the colonists, their obstinate addiction to antiquated practices, and the concomitant miseries of servile labor.

On the Culture of the Vine among the antient Greeks, and on their Method of Manufacturing Wines; by M. L. Reynier. — The various modifications of vine-husbandry practised by the antients may all be comprized under two principal divisions, according as the plant was kept low, and attached to props, or as it was trained to a considerable height, and supported on trees or poles. The Greeks appear almost uniformly to have adopted the first, while the Romans adhered to the second mode; and the distinction is still observable in the countries which they respectively inhabit, or over which their influence at one period extended. The numerous varieties of the grape, cultivated by the Greeks, were also reducible to two general classes; namely, the tender and juicy, which were chiefly converted into wine, and those with a fleshy pulp, which were mostly reserved for raisins. Some sorts were observed to accommodate themselves without difficulty to different soils and exposures, while others were extremely local in their habits. The practice of planting different varieties in the same vineyard was recommended by some, and disapproved by others: but it was generally admitted that those vines of which the wood had little pith were best adapted to dry and shelving situations, and those of an opposite description to moist soils. Manure was applied only in the case of excess of humidity, and even then was deemed prejudicial, if used before the fourth year from the planting of the vines. The details of planting, cutting, dressing, &c. are perspicuously recorded by the author, but do not very essentially differ from our modern practices. In preparing their wines, the Greeks so concentrated the must, that water was necessary to aid the fermentation, and that of the sea was preferred. When it was too harsh, a decoction of raisins was sometimes added, but was seldom requisite in the climate of Greece. In such districts of Italy as are still remarked for the elevated culture of the grape, the wine is generally of a very inferior quality, although the produce is more abundant. The use of large jars instead of casks, and of leathern skins, or flasks, for the conveyance of wine, still prevails in various parts of Greece, notwithstanding the disagreeable flavour thus imparted to the liquor. Before the jars were consigned to the cellar, and finally covered up with earth, the Greeks were accustomed to fumigate them, a practice which was adopted by the Romans. In the island of Cyprus, it is still not unusual to bury a jar of wine at the birth of a child, that it may be reserved for the day of his marriage. The inspissated and concentrated wines were scarcely drinkable without being mixed with water; and the aromatized and medicated varieties supplied the place of those liqueurs which distillation has introduced in modern times. In collecting his information relative to these particulars, M. REYNIER has had recourse to the original authorities, to which he refers in the margin.

Researches concerning the Plants known to the Romans under the Name of Ulva; by M. ARSENNE THIÉBAUT DE BERNEAUD. — In the vagueness of antient nomenclature, the denomination in question was applied to so many plants that inhabit marshy situations, that we cannot with confidence restrict it to any one genus, or species. The present writer displays much learning in endeavoring to establish that the *Ulva palustris* was the *Festuca fluitans* of modern botanists: but it is always with some degree of diffidence and scepticism that we would pronounce on such identifications.

Notice on the Volcanic Islands of Santorini, and more particularly on the New Camini; by M. JULES DUMONT D'URVILLE. — The striking history of these islands had been already detailed by *Tournefort*, *Choiseul Gouffier*, (whom M.

D'URVILLE quotes,) and other travellers: but we are here presented with some intimations also of their botany. The greater Camini, so far from being a mere sterile rock, is with a few inconsiderable exceptions, clothed with the same verdure as the other Greek islands. On the whole of the New Camini, the writer observed only two species of insects common to the other islands of the Archipelago; namely, *Pimelia sericella* of *Latreille*, and *Erodius buccinatus* of *Dejean*.

We have now reached the end of the Memoirs.—The third part of the present collection, which is the most brief, consists of some well-conceived stanzas to *Linné*, by Mademoiselle *Amable Tastu;* the origin of Veronica, an allegory, by Madame *Elize Voïart*, a rapid and rather interesting narrative, in prose; and a few short poetical effusions, more in the style of *Vers de Société* than of *Vers pour la Société Linnéenne*.

The fourth part likewise occupies an inconsiderable portion of the volume. It commences with the *Eloge of Tournefort*, by M. LEFÉBURE. The most important facts relative to the life of this naturalist were already before the public: but his present eulogist successfully proves the high estimation in which he was held by *Linné;* and this consideration, combined with the plan of the Floral System, elicits a recurrence of the conciliatory sentiment that these two illustrious botanists should no longer be regarded as rivals, but as cooperators in the promotion of their favorite science.

Biographical Notice of Jean Louis Rast de Maupas, one of the original Founders and Honorary Member of the Linnéan Society of Paris; by M. ARSENNE THIÉBAUT DE BERNEAUD.—The subject of this sketch was born in 1731, in the small town of Voulte, department of Ardèche; his father and uncle being two able physicians, who were both honored with the friendship and correspondence of *Haller*. When young, he settled in Lyons as a merchant, conducting his affairs successfully, and on the most honorable and liberal principles: he paid particular attention to the interests of the manufacturing classes, and he instituted or countenanced various public establishments: but he was particularly distinguished by the zeal with which he prosecuted natural history, and the most useful branches of rural economy. During his visits to Italy, he examined all the museums and botanic gardens of that country, collected the materials of a rather extensive herbarium, and formed an acquaintance with *Toaldo*, *Targioni*, *Spallanzani*, &c. He converted his estate of Ecully into a sort of experimental farm, and introduced many exotic plants which would bear the climate of France. The contemporary and friend of

Poivre, *Rozier*, and *Gilibert*, he followed and emulated their example, in contributing by his efforts to render agriculture respected, and conducive to public and private benefit. At the advanced age of fourscore, he was still busied with entomological researches and observations on parasitical plants: but the premature departure of a much beloved son gave a shock to his constitution which it never recovered; and he expired on the 20th of March, 1820.

Historical Notice of Anthony Gouan, Professor of Botany, in the Medical School of Montpellier; by M. Amoreux, M.D. — With reference to the ostensible situation which Professor *Gouan* so long filled with reputation, and on account of his professional publications, his name and history are more familiar to the scientific world than those of the individual whom we have just commemorated; and his private virtues were of the purest and most exalted description. The ensuing anecdotes are perhaps less generally known:

'One of the conspicuous persons whom *Gouan* most frequently visited at Paris was the philosopher *Rousseau*, who, from his fondness for botany, could not fail to give a welcome reception to a botanist whose character was already established. Besides, *Gouan*, in his youth, had been passionately fond of music, and could sustain a conversation with the author and composer of *Le Devin du Village*. He took pleasure in relating a singular adventure relative to *Rousseau*. A lady, it seems, had testified such an earnest desire to see the latter, and had so pressingly requested to be introduced to him, that *Gouan*, who could not refuse, accompanied her to the abode of the philosopher, and announced her as a relation of his own. *Jean Jacques*, with his penetrating glance, at once observed that she had neither the air of a lady of family nor the language or gait of one from the provinces; and he therefore concluded that the gratification of curiosity was her sole errand. On conducting her out by the hand, and politely re-consigning her to *Gouan*, "Know, Sir," said he, "that I love not to be tricked, even when pleased."

'*Gouan* transmitted to *Rousseau*, through the intervention of *Dombay*, some fasciculi of Pyrenéan plants, prepared by his own hand; and *Rousseau*, who was pleased with the bearer of the present, generously recompensed him, by requesting his acceptance of a handsome copy of a truly precious work, not accessible to every botanist on account of its high price, namely, the *Historia Muscorum* of *Dillenius*; accompanying the gift with these obliging expressions: "Receive a work which will be better in your hands than in mine."'

Examination of the Botanical Correspondence of Anthony Gouan (as a Supplement to his Eloge); by the Same. — It appears from these minutes, disposed in the form of *thirty-nine* *articles*, that M. *Gouan* had maintained an epistolary correspondence on professional subjects with *Linné*, (who paid him many flattering and affectionate compliments,) *Haller*, *Seguier*, *Villars*, *Picot-Lapeyrouse*, and other eminent botanists. As a specimen of the manner in which the author's analytical report is conducted, we select the seventh article:

'I ought not to quit our French Alps, communicating as they gradually do with the more imposing mountain-chains of Swisserland, without paying homage to the philosopher of Geneva; who was both a botanist and an admirer of *Linné*; and who, in his fondness for plants, had penetrated into the mountains of Savoy, and scaled those of Dauphiny. *J. J. Rousseau* had written several times to *Gouan*, but I know not which of the two had invited this philosopho-botanical correspondence. *Rousseau*, it is well known, published *Elementary Letters on Botany*, which have passed through several editions: but I am acquainted only with that of 1789, included in the fifth and sixth volumes of his complete works. I have mentioned that *Gouan* visited him when they both happened to be in Paris. Only three letters have been communicated to me, with these words on the wrapper: "The only letters that now remain to me of *J. J. Rousseau*; the others were lent to M. M——, who requested them of me, that he might print them, and who has kept them."

'Of the three letters of *Rousseau*, who then subscribed himself *Renou*, one is dated from Bourgoin, May 28. 1769, and the other two from Monquin, October 6. and December 26. 1769. In them he describes, in his own way, a plant which he had found on a mountain near Chambéry, where it is not rare. It is not a native of our districts; and, if it really was, as he supposed, an *Arnica*, (an useful plant, which forms an ingredient in the famous Swiss *faltranck*,) it would indicate the penetration of *Rousseau*, who could thus discriminate it from among so many others of the class of compound flowers (*Syngenesia polygamia superflua*). "I have," he said, "bad eyes, a bad magnifier, and very inexpert fingers; and the analysis of the fructification fatigues, repels, exhausts, and quite distracts me. I believe that the methods of botanists are very well fitted for classifying plants already known: but I am persuaded that we must have recourse to another for studying them; and hence the reason why you learned people, who write only for your equals, have never seen thus far. *Ray* appears to me to have made a nearer approach to this elementary method than any other: but he is quite ludicrous when he ranks the virtues of plants among their essential and discriminative characters."

'In his letter of October 6. 1769, in which he treats of the umbelliferous tribes, *Rousseau* designs himself a beginner at sixty years of age. He renounced, he tells us, "both on account of his ignorance and of the high price of books, the purchase of several of them, such as the *Hortus Cliffortianus*, the *Amœnitates*

Academicæ, and many others, which he would have required * to compensate the dryness of the *species*; and, with your permission, added he, that of *Hortus Monspeliensis*, and of the *Flora Monspeliaca*. You have, gentlemen, written only for the learned, and it is well and good: but I am in great want of books which would teach the ignorant to become learned. For this purpose, large quantities of figures and descriptions would be necessary."

'*Rousseau* observed the flower with accuracy, and pourtrayed it with perfect effect; he also apprehended the characters of the genera; but he has exhibited them in too concise a manner; and he has fallen into obscurity from a desire to remove difficulties repulsive to beginners. We may doubt, therefore, whether his dear cousin, to whom he addressed his *Elementary Letters*, would be enabled to recognize the plants which he indicated to her, without other aid.'

The plates, illustrative of these *primitiæ* of the Society, consist of a lithographic head of *Linné*, which has made a narrow escape from being a caricature; eleven representations of mosses, and their structure; a figure of the oak-chapel of Allouville; and a *fac-simile* of *Linné*'s hand-writing.

ART. II. *Essai Statistique sur le Royaume de Portugal*, &c.; *i. e.* A Statistical Essay on the Kingdom of Portugal and Algarva, compared with other States of Europe, &c. &c. By ADRIAN BALBI, formerly Professor of Geography, Physics, and Mathematics. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 1*l*. 4*s*.

HISTORY represents to us the Portuguese nation as one of the bravest and most warlike in Europe. Their numerous and brilliant victories over the Moors; the heroic ex-

---

' * *Rousseau*, who complained of the dearness of botanical books, finally sold his own, and refused from the Duchess of Portland the handsome present of *Rumphius*'s sumptuous work, the *Herbarium Amboïnense*, sending back the case unopened.— To the same purport we may quote a letter which he wrote, on the 16th of March, 1770, to M. *De la Tourette*, at Lyons, accompanied with a specimen of *Dianthus superbus*, a beautiful pink, of delicious fragrance, which he found abundantly in a meadow, under his windows; adding to his account of it this playful expression, "that none but the horses of the sun should be permitted to feed on such hay." In two other letters to the same person, he makes mention of *Gouan*; from which we learn that our botanist maintained an intercourse with that naturalist, who was secretary to the Academy of Lyons. We have not, however, found any of his letters, nor those of the Abbé *Rozier*; with whom *Gouan* was so intimate, that he lodged in the house of that learned agriculturist when he went to or came from the fine estate which he cultivated in the neighbourhood of Beziers.'

ploits and prodigies of valor performed by their *Albuquerques*, their *Pachecos*, and their *Da Cunhas* in both the Indies; their glorious campaigns in Africa; their long and successful struggles against the colossal power of Spain; all testify their undisputed claims to military renown in former times. To much higher honor, also, than that which warlike distinction did the Portuguese aspire. The discovery of the mariner's compass by a Neapolitan, Flavio Gioia, in the early part of the thirteenth century, had encouraged navigators to quit their circuitous routes along the shores of the Ocean from harbour to harbour, and boldly to sail across its immeasurable surface; — this enterprizing spirit conducted the Spaniards to the Canary islands, five hundred miles from their own coast: — but to the Portuguese must be ascribed the chief glory of penetrating beyond the limits which nature seemed to have imposed. In the beginning of the fifteenth century, their fearless vessels explored the coast of Africa, doubled Cape Horn, which had bounded the progress of all former navigators, and reached Cape Bojador. Beneath the auspices of Prince Henry, they rapidly advanced in the study of geography, as well as in the science of navigation; and they discovered and planted the islands of Santo Porto and Madeira, the Azores, the coast of Guinea, Congo, St. Helena, Sumatra, &c. &c. Encouraged by success, this spirit of enterprize became more adventurous, despised dangers which once appalled it, and surmounted difficulties which once were deemed insuperable. To gain the continent of India by a shorter route than any hitherto known was long the anxious object of the Portuguese councils; and it was finally effected by the skill and intrepidity of *Vasco de Gama*, who doubled the Cape of Good Hope, (or Cape of Tempests, as it had previously and deservedly been called,) stretched across the Indian ocean, and landed at Calecut, on the Malabar coast, in the year 1498.

Perhaps it was as a reward for these glorious achievements that John III., a very few years afterward, conferred on his subjects the unspeakable blessings of the Inquisition, for the purpose of discovering and punishing concealed Jews and heretics. This holy tribunal continued till the year 1820, when it was abolished by the Cortes; who, while they pronounced, in the seventeenth article of their new constitution, the religion of the Portuguese nation to be the Catholic, apostolic, and Roman religion, yet tolerated all religions of whatsoever sort and description. As, under the reign of Mary, the Inquisition had resumed a portion of that terrible oppression which had been relaxed during the reign of her predecessor, Joseph, and his accomplished minister the Marquis de *Pombal*, and had driven to emigration a number of individuals from all classes of society; so did the abolition of that tribunal, and the toleration announced by the new constitutional government of 1820, serve as an invitation for the return of a number of Portuguese Jews who had been scattered over all Europe, and in Barbary.

The present state of Portugal is too greatly disturbed to allow of any confident speculation relative to the permanent political condition into which it is likely to subside. Perhaps it was too much to expect that John VI. should sincerely regard with complacency the curtailment of his own absolute authority, and the annihilation of that engine of despotism which John III., three hundred years before, had introduced into his kingdom. Perhaps, also, it was unreasonable to confide in his fidelity to the new constitution of the monarchy, merely because he had repeatedly sworn to maintain it; *once* while he was at Rio Janeiro; a *second* time when he landed at Lisbon; and a *third* time on the first of October, 1822, in the midst of the national representatives; — or because on the defection of his son, the Infante Don Miguel, he had issued a proclamation, 30th of May, 1823, in which he said that he would "abandon that son as a father and punish him as a king;" adding that, "faithful to his oath, he would support the constitution to which he had *freely sworn*, and had never known what it was to be untrue to his word." — "Put not thy trust in princes" is a warning of very antient and high authority. — On the very night of the 30th of May, on the night of that day on which he had declared to the nation and the Cortes that "he had never been untrue to his word," John VI. broke his most solemn promises and became the betrayer of his country, by throwing himself into the arms of the counter-revolutionists, and entering Lisbon under the guard of a licentious and corrupted soldiery, with the Infante Don Miguel — his proscribed son — now named Generalissimo of the army, in his train! Is it possible that the Portuguese people should suffer the re-establishment of the Inquisition? That such is the object of the king, his priests, and his nobles, may not indeed be disputed; or that such is the object of those royal conspirators of the Continent in their alliance against the freedom and intellectual improvement of mankind, whose attacks on Naples and on Spain, and whose threatenings towards Wurtemburg and Swisserland, leave no doubt of their determination to put down freedom wherever they have the power to crush it. We cannot yet bring ourselves to believe that the perfidy which has effected a counter-revolution in Portugal will be permanently triumphant. The people have not yet lost our confidence; and that generous spirit, that chivalrous courage, which, disdaining all consideration of immediate and personal security, volunteered its succour to the Spaniards at the commencement of their struggle against the Bourbons of France, by declaring that the passage of the Pyrennees would be considered by them as a declaration of war, indicated a national panting for independence, and a love of freedom, which we shall not readily believe to be quenched by the momentary success of a faction of nobles, priests, and mercenary soldiers; — of Sepulvedas and Souza de Sampaios.

The author of the work which has prompted us to these remarks is an Italian, who tells us that the misfortunes of the times diverted him from his accustomed pursuits, and that circumstances led him to Lisbon at the commencement of the year 1820. Here he resided many months, preparing for publication his "*Tableau Statistique de l'Europe*," and completing some geographical works which he had begun in Italy: persuaded, he says, that he could add but little to what was already known respecting Portugal; and likewise that the ignorance, the want of industry or enterprize, and the low state of commerce and agriculture of this country, could offer but little to gratify public curiosity. In the course of his researches, however, he found materials for a statistical account of Portugal, greatly more abundant and valuable than he had anticipated; and which at the same time disclosed national resources, both moral and physical, that excited his astonishment.

As a nation, the Portuguese are reproached for paying no attention to manufactures; for being almost ignorant of agriculture, and for scarcely growing corn enough to last three months in ordinary years, or six months in the best of seasons; for exporting only a little wine, salt, wool, and a few fruits; for having a very limited commerce, which they abandon almost entirely to strangers; for feeding two or three hundred thousand Ecclesiastics, with an army inferior in point of numbers, badly paid, and badly disciplined; for vegetating in the grossest ignorance of all that relates to science and art; for having no painters, sculptors, or engravers; for publishing no political journals, except the miserable Lisbon Gazette, and two or three other periodical bagatelles; and for so conducting their vast establishments abroad, that they are distinguished from the colonies of all other maritime nations by the thinness of their population and the scantiness of their productions. In the chapters which treat on these subjects respectively, a series of facts is adduced, (though we must say not always very successfully,) to shew that, however just these reproaches might have been thirty years ago, they are not well-founded now. Will it be credited that, up to the year 1800, the *Gazeta de Lisboa* was the only political paper published throughout the whole Portuguese monarchy? and, as a matter of course, under the influence of government. (Vol. ii. Appendix, p. clxxvii). In 1806, in addition to the *Gazeta* and the *Almanach de Lisboa*, appeared the *Jornal Enciclopedico*, or *Diario Universal das Sciencias e Artes*, the *Bibliotheca Universal*, and the *Collecção de Mentiras e Verdades* (Collection of Lies and Truths). It was very natural that such political events as the French invasion, and the long war which followed, should stimulate the Portuguese to write on public affairs; and that they should induce the government also to encourage a greater degree of freedom, in order that the national enthusiasm which had just been kindled might be fanned into a flame. The consequence was that a crowd of periodical works sprang up, as it were, by enchantment; and M. BALBI gives the names and characters of several. Many of these, as they were called into existence by the events of the moment, died a natural death when these events passed away; and in the year 1820, up to the memorable 24th of August, not more than four or five periodical journals were printed, exclusive of some almanacks and nautical ephemerides. It is worthy of remark, however, that the difficulty and danger attending the publication of politico-literary journals in Brazil, and in Portugal after the royal family went to Rio Janeiro, induced some ardent patriotic writers to establish themselves in foreign countries; and the Portuguese journals, which were composed and published in England and France, are known to have had very considerable influence in bringing about the Constitutional government. The *Contemporaneo*, and the *Annaes das Sciencias e Artes*, were published in Paris. The *Correio Brasiliense* was the first which appeared in London in 1808, edited by M. *Hippolito da Costa*, a physician. The *Investigador Portuguez* was conducted by Messrs. *Abrantes*, *Castro*, and *Nolasco*. The journal intitled *O Portuguez* appeared in London in 1814, conducted by M. *João Bernardo da Rocha*, and obtained great celebrity by the purity of its language, the force of its style, and the high spirit of independence which it breathed. The establishment of the constitutional government was accompanied by an unrestricted liberty of writing on all subjects, and periodical publications multiplied considerably; so that in February, 1821, seventeen political journals were published in Lisbon; and in the month of June following we have a list of more than thirty published at Lisbon, Coimbra, Oporto, Paris, London, Funchal, Pernambuco, Bahia, and Rio Janeiro.

Without going into a formal analysis of M. BALBI's work, which contains a mass of information, the result of great labor and minute research, we must be satisfied with attempting to furnish our readers with an intimation of its contents, and of the manner in which they are arranged. It is divided into two parts; the first containing the antient and historical geography of the kingdom, and the second including its modern geography. The former is subdivided into two sections and an appendix; the latter into six sections, likewise followed by a very copious appendix. The two sections of the first part exhibit a comparison between the antient and the modern geography, and then a notice of the principal epochs in the history of Portugal, from the commencement of the monarchy to the present times. The appendix gives an account of the political changes which took place from the 24th of August, 1820, to the 29th of March, 1821, together with a copy of the manifesto published in the name of the nation to the sovereigns and people of Europe; a manifesto which, disdaining all the quackery and rhodomontade with which state-papers are very commonly stuffed, represents in language the most simple and impressive the wretched situation of the kingdom, from the period of the departure of the royal family to Brazil in 1807; with those circumstances which rendered the appointment of a Constitutional and representative government imperative.

'The revolution,' M. BALBI says, 'which broke out in Spain on the 1st of January, 1820, would necessarily produce a great sensation in Portugal; where, for a long time, the wheels of government had moved with difficulty in the midst of shattered finances, a treasury daily decreasing in its credit, and a general state of wretchedness and despondency among all classes of people. In fact, the laborer, the artizan, the soldier, and the merchant, rivalled each other in complaints, and not without the fullest reason; and the very magistrate, deprived of his salary, was compelled for a maintenance to abandon himself to venality. The future, fertile in hope, which so often consoles and supports the unfortunate even while it deludes them, no longer presented any smiling picture of prosperity to the Portuguese: a thousand times deceived, they saw nothing around them but an inevitable abyss, and the dissolution of all social order; the residence of the court at Brazil, which seemed to have been irrevocably fixed there, took away from them all hope of improvement; and, reduced from being the seat of empire to a mere colony, Portugal was suffering the irreparable evils of a government placed at an immense distance, under circumstances of daily increasing aggravation.

Under the general head of Modern Geography are comprized, *first*, what is called the *Physical Geography* of the country; namely, its boundaries, extent, height of mountains, varieties of soil, climate, lakes, rivers, and animal, vegetable, and mineral productions; together with the state of the fisheries, vineyards, agriculture, &c. &c. In order to redeem the Portuguese from the charge of ignorance in agriculture, M. Balbi has given a table (vol. i. p. 146.) of the Cerealia which were imported from the years 1795 to 1820; whence he deduces that Portugal grows enough for its consumption, *minus* about twenty-five days, or a fifteenth part of the year. A country, however, which will produce and ripen the orange, the fig, the grape, and the olive, may leave to others placed under less genial suns the culture of wheat, oats, and barley. As it is, the Cerealia of foreign states are chiefly consumed by the population of Lisbon, which can only be supplied by sea; the badness of the roads reducing to the most trifling amount the quantity of provisions that is brought from those interior parts of the kingdom in which they abound. The practice of agriculture in Portugal is not only very much behind that of England, but likewise behind that of France, Italy, Germany, and other European countries. The vallies of the Minho, and, indeed, of several of the northern parts, display some rural industry and skill: but, with the exception of the Minho, a part of Tras os Montes, and Beira, almost all the rest of the kingdom is neglected. Estramadura and Algarva lie uncultivated; and about two-ninths only of Alemtejo are cultivated annually, and of these only one with wheat.

The soil and climate of Portugal are peculiarly adapted to the olive, which requires less care than the vine; and what an exhaustless mine of wealth, exclaims M. Balbi, might this country appropriate if it would encourage the growth of this precious fruit by the prohibition of foreign oil, and by converting vast tracts of territory into olive-grounds, which are now barren, and little adapted to any other productions! Perhaps the author has heard something about the English Corn-laws, and the encouragement which they are supposed to afford to English agriculture, and therefore he recommends a legislative protection to the olive-growers. The Portuguese, however, must be very unobservant agriculturists; and a vast number of them, year after year, witness the destruction of their olive-crops by that terrible disease, the *ferrugem*, in consequence of exposure to too great a heat, which renders them peculiarly liable to it. A similar want of caution is observable.

able in the culture of the Vine, which is often grown in soils and situations much better calculated for wheat or maize. Woods are rarely planted, and, if planted, are neglected. All that sandy tract of soil, which extends along the coast for two hundred and fifty miles, remains without culture, and is continually encroaching on the fertile districts which adjoin it; though, by planting firs, this evil might be arrested, and a supply of wood be obtained, of which the country stands much in need. Artificial meadows are almost unknown, except in the Minho; where, in some watered spots, the *astragalus onobrychis* is cultivated. Among the various causes which M. Balbi enumerates as co-operating to depress agriculture, are the odious *foraes* or privileges granted under the denomination of *Jugadas, Quintos, Alças*, to vast tracts of land belonging to the Crown, to religious communities, and to grandees; the numerous tributes which are assessed on the peasantry, under the names of *Sisas, Devassas Geraes, Posturas*, &c. together with personal corvées or services; and supplies of horses, oxen, carriages, &c. for conveyance, which are demanded of the farmers under various pretexts. There are likewise immense tracts of uncultivated lands, under the denomination of *Baldios, Foreiros, Coutadas*, &c. belonging to the Crown, the clergy, or the great seigneurs, which cannot be sold, and which lie neglected. The militia also is almost entirely recruited from the agricultural class; and this disproportioned subtraction of hands from agriculture, in a thinly-peopled country, raises the price of labour engaged in it, and diminishes the profits attached to the pursuit. The assemblage of the nobility and gentry in the capital and its environs, and their repugnance to living on their own estates, are also mentioned as an unfavorable circumstance: while another exists which may be deemed still more so, namely, that very few of the great mass of farmers are proprietors of the soil which they cultivate. In the *Termo d'Evora*, out of nine hundred and fifty occupations, not a fiftieth part is in the hands of the owners; the consequence is, (we presume that there are no leases,) that the lands are much neglected; for, whenever the proprietors see them improved, they either take them into their own hands or let them to any tenant who will offer a higher rent than he who has sustained the expence of improving them. The Constitutional Cortes relieved agriculture from many of these oppressive tributes, and, under certain conditions, prohibited the importation of foreign corn; an encouragement to the grower which calls forth the applause of M. Balbi: but they would have done better if they *had* removed the absurd restrictions against its exportation.

Corn is generally superabundant in the province of Alemtejo: but, in consequence of the great expence of transport over bad roads, and the low price of foreign corn in Lisbon, the farmers of Alemtejo cannot send it to the capital with profit, nor can they consume the whole of it at home: whereas they might readily export any excess of produce into Spain, if they were permitted.

It is worthy of remark that neat cattle do not abound in Portugal. If we consider the invaluable qualities of the ox and the cow in furnishing milk, butter, cheese, meat, and abundant manure, as also in giving employment to the shoemaker, the saddler, the book-binder, &c., it is not a little surprizing that this animal receives so little attention. Perhaps our readers will not readily guess the cause: but in Portugal ("*tantum religio potuit suadere malorum*") *meagre days* constitute nearly a third part of the entire year; reducing, in a corresponding proportion, the annual consumption of meat. To encourage this important branch of agriculture, M. Balbi advises the Portuguese to follow the example of their neighbours, who have lessened the number of meagre days to one in a week, and in Lent abstain from eating meat only during the holy week. The pastures of Portugal, however, are of indifferent quality. — We might naturally presume that, where the population of a country abstains from meat during one-third of the year, the fisheries must be in a very thriving state: but just the contrary is the fact. With an extensive line of coast on the Atlantic Ocean, with rivers in the interior, abounding in fish, with inhabitants addicted to maritime pursuits, and with great abundance of excellent salt for curing the produce of the sea, the fisheries of the Portuguese are in the lowest state of depression. This people were the first to fish for cod on the banks of the New-found-land, and have sent thither fifty vessels in a year, bringing back three thousand tons of fish: yet the cod-fishery is abandoned, and they now purchase of the Americans and English that which they formerly caught for themselves and supplied to others. M. Balbi enumerates a great variety of causes which concur in depressing the fisheries: but all these, with the exception of the neglected and miserable state of several of the ports, (particularly Vianna, Villa de Conde, Sagres, Faro, Tavira, and some others,) may be classed under one head, that of vexatious and excessive duties, which are frequently farmed out to civil and military officers. In the first place, the poverty of the fishermen is so great that, in order to equip themselves with the necessary articles of apparatus, they are often obliged to borrow them by pledging one-third of [illegible] of their entire catch for the use of them. They are [illegible] soon as the poor fellows get on shore, their nets [illegible] casks, &c. are opened by the agent of the farmer, who takes a fourth, sixth, or eighth of their fish; next come the farmers of the *dizimo* and the farmer of the *sisa*; [illegible] the rapacity of these harpies is, in many places, subject to the *almotaçés*, or civil officers charged with regulating the price of provisions, who fix a duty on the fish without knowing what it is worth or what it cost.

Under the title of *Political and Administrative Geography* the author gives an estimate of the population of Portugal, which in January, 1822, he reckons to have been 3,173,000. Lisbon alone, he says, increased its numbers about 10,000 between the years 1801 and 1819; and, within the same period, the entire kingdom is estimated to have added to its population about 100,000 souls.* In the most favourable circumstances, without any interest in deceiving or being deceived, or any real or imaginary cause for concealment, it has always been extremely difficult to form an enumeration of the people of any country that will make any approach to accuracy. We have had three general enumerations of the inhabitants of Great Britain, taken at equal intervals, and which indicate an increase of population of about thirty per cent. in the course of twenty years. In the censuses of 1801 and 1811, the sexes only were distinguished, while in that of 1821 the ages were given: but Mr. Rickman, in his "Preliminary Observations to the Abstract of Population Returns," acknowleges the inaccuracy of the two former. In both cases, the apparent per-centage increase is nearly the same; and this similarity of result, says he, (speaking of the baptisms and burials,) seems to prove that the enumeration of 1801 was *no more defective*, as compared with that of 1811, *than the enumeration of* 1811 *is to that of* 1821. An "Examination of the Censuses of Great Britain," however, conducted with great ingenuity and skill by Mr. Booth, gives the strongest reason to suspect, not that the census of 1821 is quite so incorrect as either of the other two, but that the increase of population during the ten years preceding the last return, instead of being fifteen per cent., is at the utmost six per cent.; which must be a very consolatory reflection to those gentlemen who fear that the world will soon not be wide enough

---

[*] At p. 178. vol. ii., in giving a topographical account of Lisbon, the writer reckons its population to have been about 220,000 in 1801, and 240,000 in 1819. It contains *two hundred and forty-six* churches and chapels.

enough for all, and therefore call out for legislative enactments to punish *pauper* procreation.

With respect to the Portuguese, M. Balbi acknowleges that their taste does not lie in statistical inquiries, and that the kingdom presents as much confusion and disorder in its ecclesiastical divisions, as in its civil, administrative, and military departments. Even the number of parishes which it contains is not ascertained, but is very differently given by cotemporary writers. (Vol. ii. pp. 4. and 185.) Can confidence be placed, then, in any existing census of its population? M. Balbi has presented us with a great variety of tables on the subject, deduced (he says) from the best authorities; but we can hardly think that he himself has much reliance on their accuracy, when he states that any excess of numbers that may have been returned from one *comarca*, or financial division of the kingdom, may be presumed to be corrected and balanced by a corresponding defect of numbers returned from some other; and therefore that the result is nearly the same as if they were both accurate! (Vol. ii. p. 194.) His tables indicate an enlarging population; but, to obtain credence for this circumstance, — consoling to some and alarming to others, — he does not rely entirely on the figures which his tables exhibit, but deems it necessary to reason on the probability of such an augmentation. He remarks that, if Sweden, Norway, and the most northern governments of Russia in Europe, in regions of frost, with scanty commerce, an ungrateful soil, and wretched agriculture, have added considerably to their respective populations; — if Ireland *has doubled hers* in the short space of thirty-two years, amid civil and religious commotions of which she has been the theatre, in defiance of the misery which depresses her inhabitants, and of the emigration which is annually withdrawing numbers from her shores; — if England, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, the government of Magdeburg, and many of the most thickly peopled departments of France, with a very concentrated population, are annually adding thousands to their numbers; — if certain districts of Hungary, along the Theis and the Danube, exposed to the ravages of an unhealthy air, and those military frontiers which have constantly supplied the Austrian armies with countless recruits, have, nevertheless, prodigiously increased the number of their inhabitants; — *why* should we deny to Portugal the possibility of having been able to repair, during seven years of peace, the ravages in her population that were occasioned by the invasions of 1807, 1808, and 1810: Portugal, which is free from those obstacles that we might naturally imagine to oppose an increase of population in the countries just mentioned, but the augmentation in which is proved by official documents?—It is rather strange to ask why Portugal should not have enlarged her numbers, in an inquiry as to the fact whether she has so done or not.*

Exceedingly discrepant also have been the accounts given by different authors as to the number of ecclesiastics; who have been estimated by *Dumouriez*, *Carrere*, *Chatelet*, and *Bourgoing*, at about 200,000, comprizing both sexes. *Laborde*, in the year 1808, calculated the number at 280,000; and by some other writers it has been carried as high as 300,000. M. Balbi makes a sweeping, and, if correct, a hopeful reduction; for he says that they do not at present exceed 29,000: but has the calculation been mere guess-work on the part of all preceding authors? We confess that it seems something like guess-work on the part of M. Balbi; who gets at the number by the rule of three. If a given portion of the population contains so many ecclesiastics, how many does

---

[*] M. Balbi considers the population of Portugal to have risen progressively from the year 1668 to 1807, and at that period to have been at its highest. At p. 235. *et seq.* of vol. i. he has answered his own question by some reflections on the causes which have retarded population in that country. In noticing invasions, wars, religious intolerance, earthquakes, leprosy, pestilence, small-pox, venereal poison, and impolitic regulations, it is clear that several of these operate in a greater or less degree in all other countries. Then what are the peculiar circumstances which affect Portugal, combining their malignant influence with those causes? The author answers, 1. The bad state of agriculture; 2. The wretchedness of the peasantry, a state of vassalage among men as degraded as that of the antient serfs of Russia, the neglect of marriage arising from the difficulty of maintaining a family, and the general habit of concubinage. 3. The emigration of peasants to other countries, because the earnings of their labour will not maintain them at home. 4. The contempt with which agriculture is regarded has induced many to take the plough and the spade out of the hands of their sons, and to put an ecclesiastical habit on their backs. 5. The enormous multiplication of primogenitures. 6. The *luxury of the husbandmen.* In good old times, this class of people made their garments of coarse cloth, woven in the country: but now, it seems, the men, their wives, and their daughters, indulge in the costlier products of foreign looms. We must leave the author to reconcile this imputed cause of poverty and depopulation with the others that have preceded it. 7. The vast number of beggars. 8. The neglected state of the fisheries, and the distressed condition of the persons engaged in them.—Some other causes are enumerated; and certainly, with the exception of the *sixth*, they form an aggregate which proves the imperative necessity of a constitutional government.

the whole contain? Thus: it appears, according to an exact and detailed census made by *Custodio José Gomes de Villas Boas*, in the year 1794, that the province of Minho, with a population of 608,082 inhabitants, contained 5177 secular ecclesiastics, and 1430 regulars or monks, making a total of 6607. The population of the Minho being about four-tenths less than a fourth of the total population of the kingdom, which might then be estimated at 2,880,000 inhabitants, by multiplying (says M. BALBI) 6607 by $4\frac{4}{10}$, we have 29,071 ecclesiastics; which, however, he thinks, exceeds the real number, at least as to regulars, because they are much more numerous in the Minho than in other provinces. If, he continues, we wish to obtain an approximation to the number of the regular clergy, it may be done thus; supposing that the Minho, with 1857 parishes, had in the year 1794 only 5177 secular ecclesiastics, and taking the same proportion for the rest of the country, how many ecclesiastics must there be in the whole kingdom, on the hypothesis that it contains 4054 parishes? *We have the solution* in the fourth term of the following proportion:

1187 : 5177 :: 4054 : 17681—(*and the fraction of a monk to spare.*)

It would not be very amusing to our readers, nor very instructive, to proceed in calculations so excessively vague as these. The author sums up the total of his *fourth term* thus; that there are about 18,000 individuals belonging to the secular clergy, with 6292 *religieux* and 4430 *religieuses* for the regulars, making a gross amount of 28,722. He reckons the number of convents to be, for males 363, and for females 138; the latter containing, in October, 1821, 5903 individuals; the revenue of the former amounting to 607,750,000 reis, and that of the latter to 421 millions of reis, besides large contributions of corn, wine, and oil. The secular clergy, with some few exceptions, have not the same influence and consideration in private families which the monks enjoy: but of late, says the writer, these things have greatly changed, especially in large towns, the ecclesiastics of every description having lost much of the influence which they formerly exercised over the minds of the people. Monastic vows are also become more infrequent, particularly among the members of distinguished families; and, for some time past, strong measures have been adopted to limit the number of convents, many of which are no longer inhabited. In the year 1759, Portugal was the first to chase away the Jesuits from all their possessions, and to confiscate their property; and the minister, *Pombal*, delayed the period for taking monastic vows till the age of twenty-five. In 1788, a decree was passed to prevent any person from entering the ecclesiastical state without permission from the King; and, lastly, the Cortes of 1821 have suspended . . . . . but here we must pause, since it has pleased a corrupt faction, for the time triumphant, to restore the absolute authority of the King, and to destroy a Constitution of which indeed that debased faction was unworthy, but which promised to protect the civil and religious liberties of the people at large. — A detailed account of the financial state of Portugal, its public debt, revenue, and expenditure, under different heads, for the last six years, is to be found in this division of the work; as also the "Constitution" of 1821 at length, to which the King repeatedly swore fidelity.

Scarcely any thing stood in greater need of reform than the military establishments of the country, in almost all their various departments, for they were extremely expensive and ineffective. The budget of 1822 gave the national revenue at 7,232,000,000 reis, and the expenditure at 8,839,000,000, leaving a deficit of 1,607,000,000; and of this expenditure one half was for the supply of the army, namely, 4,379,200,000 reis.* With all this, Portugal has only three establishments worthy the name of arsenals; namely, Lisbon, (by far the most important, and on which 1250 men were employed in August, 1821), Elvas, and Oporto. Most of the fortresses are in ruins: but the principal of those which remain are Elvas and its dependencies, in the Alemtejo, which is the strongest place in the kingdom; Peniche, and the forts which defend the mouth of the Tagus, in Estramadura; Almeida, in the Beira; and Valença, in the Minho. The Monte Pio was established in the year 1790, by Queen Marie, on the petition of the officers in Alemtejo, who desired to appropriate one day's pay per month in order to make a fund for the support of their widows and children after their own decease: their example was followed by those of the other provinces; and Monte Pio became a national establishment. Nothing can prove more decisively the embarrassed state of the finances than that, of late years, this sacred fund has been invaded, and the pensions on it suspended: but measures have been subsequently adopted for restoring its lost credit.

Commercial Geography. — Although the commerce of Portugal, during the ten years immediately preceding the departure of the royal family for Brazil, was much less flourishing than it had been in the sixteenth century, M. **Balbi** does not hesitate to conclude, from various official documents furnished to him by MM. *Cavalhos*, *Ferreira Borges*, and *Felgueiras*, (deputies to the late Cortes,) that, considering the various obstacles to its full developement, the limited extent of the kingdom, and the small amount of its population, Portugal carried on commercial transactions with her South American colonies, and with foreign nations, to an extent beyond most other European countries, and exceeded only by England and Hamburgh.

---

* In the year 1821, it amounted to 12,840,200 crusados, or 5,136,222,000 reis, when the Portuguese army consisted of only 32,150 men. (Vol. i. p. 371.)

'This event, and the invasions of the French armies, occasioned incalculable mischief. During the first incursion, the French destroyed the principal manufactories of the country by dispersing the workmen employed in them, by diverting to other purposes the money engaged, and by preventing all communication with those trans-marine possessions which had furnished the principal market for the fabrics wrought. The two following invasions completed the ruin which the first began. Every body fled before the hostile armies, either to the capital or among the mountains; one half of Portugal was converted into a desert; and the fear of being made captive plunged the other half in consternation. When the face of things had become changed by the repulse of the enemy beyond the frontiers, the desolation occasioned by fire and pillage was increased by epidemical disease and scarcity of provisions; so that they who survived this complication of afflictions found themselves, on their return to their own hearths, without means of subsistence, and without the possibility of carrying on their accustomed agricultural labours. As a climax to these evils, unlimited freedom was granted by the government to all foreign vessels to enter the ports of Brazil in the year 1808; the disastrous treaty with England was concluded in 1810; and the war, as impolitic as unfortunate, against the insurgents of South America, completed the ruin of the commerce and industry of Portugal: whose navy also, both mercantile and military, was almost entirely ruined by the insufficient measures adopted for protecting these essential supports of national prosperity. The great number of recruits necessary to keep up an army of 60,000 troops of the line and 50,000 militia, and the prodigious consumption of all sorts of cattle and of grain *destined for seed*, together with the inevitable expences of active warfare, as they every where added to the means of destruction, ended in depriving the state of all its resources. The sensible diminution of public revenue, — the depreciation of paper-money, — the destruction of commerce, industry, population, and agriculture, — the debts contracted in the course of the war, — an entire want of public credit, — the scandalous malversation of fiscal agents, — and Portuguese merchant-ships seized by friends as well as foes, and exposed to the insults of pirates within the very sight of their own fortresses, — complete the deplorable picture of Portugal during this period. The balance-sheet of foreign commerce presents an account of enormous sums lost annually since the year 1807; the most unfortunate years being 1810, when Portugal lost 11,324,000 crusados; 1811, when the loss amounted to 79,475,000 crusados; 1812, when it was 59,858,000; 1813, when it was 52,623,000; 1814, when it was 12,730,000; and 1815, when it was 12,725,000 crusados. Although these unfavorable balances have been gradually diminishing since that time, they are still considerable. The subsidies granted by England, and the remittances to Portugal for the payment of the English army, scarcely equalled the sums annually sent to Rio Janeiro for the pay and support of that portion of the Portuguese army which was at Brazil; and for the expences of some maritime expeditions destined to furnish troops against the Spaniards of South America.' (Vol. i. p. 409—411.)

We have already stated that, from the want of good roads, public carriages, canals, and navigable rivers, the internal commerce of the country is very defective. M. BALBI, in this division of his work, has given a series of tables exhibiting the amount and balance of trade on the part of Portugal with America, the coast of Africa, the East Indies, England, France, Russia, Sweden, Hamburgh, and in short with all the other countries of Europe.

Ecclesiastical Geography. — Under this head will be found an enumeration of the various dioceses, parishes, convents, and religious orders; with the revenues attached to them, the extent of their jurisdictions, &c. &c. We have anticipated a part of this division in noticing the population of the kingdom. Numerous as are the religious houses and ecclesiastics in Portugal, it seems that they are considerably fewer in proportion to the population than they are or rather *were* in Spain, and than they are in Naples. Lisbon contains 39 convents (for males); Coimbra, 2, and 17 colleges; Evora, 12; Oporto, 10; Santarem, 11. A short time back, Valladolid had 43 convents; Alcala, 19, and 20 colleges; Salamanca, 20 convents and 38 colleges; Aquila, 17; Cozenza, 16; Salerno, 14, &c. &c.

The last division of this work is intitled *Literary Geography.* — After some preliminary remarks on the physical and moral character of the Portuguese, and a very brief historical sketch of their language and literature, the author gives a detailed account of the different universities, academies, philosophical institutions, schools, libraries, cabinets, botanic gardens, &c. &c. It is impossible to present a more correct idea of the degraded state of literature in Portugal, and of the general indifference for any thing which relates to it, than by stating that the whole kingdom contains only sixteen printing offices! Lisbon has twelve: but Coimbra, the seat of one of the oldest universities in Europe, has only the University-office, and *that* contains merely twelve presses. The other three are at Oporto: — in which city, be it added, there is not a single public library! The government of Milan, alone, comprehending the Lombardy provinces and a population of little more than two millions, had above seventy printing offices eight years ago; and Sweden forty-five, of which sixteen were at Stockholm. We hope that it would be impossible to find a country in Europe, of equal population and extent with Portugal, which puts so little in requisition that wonder-working and immortal engine, THE PRESS. The Marquis de *Pombal* was a liberal and enlightened minister, under whose auspices Portugal was beginning to emerge from the midnight darkness in which monks, friars, and inquisitors had shrouded it; and who laid the foundation of a system of national instruction by the establishment of primary public schools in the various cities, towns, and villages: but these have been neglected by the apathy, or wilfully abandoned by the cunning, of his successors. The freedom of the press was declared by the *late* Constitutional government, and would inevitably have produced the diffusion of intelligence, with a taste for inquiry and discussion, of the highest moral efficacy.

Portugal is now behind most countries in the great article of primary and national education; and the *aperçu* which M. BALBI has given of the state of public instruction in the Austrian, Prussian, and Russian dominions, in Holland, Italy, Sweden, Swisserland, and France, serving as points of comparison with the state in which it exists in Portugal, is so very interesting, that we regret the impossibility of following him without "going out of bounds." A few facts must suffice. Among a population exceeding three millions, there can scarcely be reckoned thirty-nine thousand young persons who partake the benefits of public instruction from all the different establishments in Portugal. Small as this proportion is, it becomes satisfactory on reflecting that, in the year 1787, only ten thousand could be estimated throughout the kingdom. The states of Germany present the most cheering view of national education hourly extending itself in every direction; and it would not be doing justice to the autocrat of Russia to deny that, throughout his almost immeasurable dominions, he is endeavoring to civilize his rugged boors by the diffusion of elementary knowlege, as well as of commerce. Before the year 1800, the vast empire of Russia contained only twenty-five printing offices, but has now, without counting those of Swedish Finland and of Poland, fifty-eight; of which, twenty are at Moscow, fifteen at Petersburgh, five at Wilna, &c. &c. At that time, also, only ten periodical journals were published, but in the year 1820 the number had increased to fifty. *Bachmeistrr*, in his *Bibliothèque Russe*, reckoned only 4000 books published up to 1807; and in 1800 the library of the Academy of Sciences of Petersburgh possessed only 3000 national works: but at the present time, it has more than 8000. According to the Literary Gazette of Leipzig, (April 21. 1821,) seven booksellers at Petersburgh and nine at Moscow had published, in the course of four years, about a thousand works in the national language. From these facts, it appears that more Russian books have been printed since the year 1800, than had been issued altogether from the time of Peter the Great to the commencement of the present reign. — Although primary instruction is not diffused over the mass of the nation in France as extensively as it is in the states of Germany, we find, from a comparison of its actual state in the years 1817 and 1820, that it is spreading more and more widely every day. The following table is furnished by M. *Guinard*, *Avocat à la Cour Royale*, *et Chef de Bureau de l'Académie de Paris:*

	1817.	1820.	Difference.
Number of communes having one or more schools, - -	17,800	24,124	6,324
Total number of schools, -	20,200	27,581	7,381
Number of scholars, - -	865,721	1,103,700	237,979
Number of masters, - -	20,784	28,945	8,161
Number of schools *tenues par les Frères*, - - -	60	187	127
Ditto of mutual instruction, -	313	1,073	760
Schools of the first degree, -	50	238	188
Schools of the second, - -	1,500	5,539	4,039
Schools of the third, - -	18,650	21,804	3,154

This view exhibits a very encouraging prospect. Ignorance is the parent of vice: an universal extension of the elements of education *must* strengthen the faculties of the human mind by giving them exercise; and no system can be conceived so bad as not to have some tendency to inculcate good morals, habits of order, discipline, and industry. All the branches of public instruction are confided to the "University of France;" and the return of numbers for the year 1821, of *boys* under the instruction of some of the schools dependant on the University, amounted to 1,331,237: to which must be added *about 400,000 girls*, the exact numbers not being returned.

The appendix to the second part of this very elaborate publication contains a rapid sketch of the state of literature, arts, and sciences, among the Portuguese during the last twenty years; with a notice of living writers and artists, and of their respective works.

'The general indifference of the nation for abstruse sciences,' says M. Balbi, 'the little estimation in which persons are held who devote themselves to the study of them, for the bulk of the people consider a mathematician as an useless philosopher, and scarcely better than a fool or a madman; the opinion universally entertained that the profoundest and most extensive acquirements are perfectly contemptible, unless they furnish the possessor with riches; the narrow-minded education which is consequently bestowed by fathers on their children; the trammels of the press, occasioned by the severity of the censorship and the exorbitant price of paper and printing; the almost total absence of political and literary journals till the commencement of the present century; religious notions, *perhaps carried somewhat too far*; the rigor of the police and of the Inquisition, which prohibited not only the publication but the reading or the possession of almost any of those works on policy, morals, philosophy, and legislation, which in foreign countries are held in the highest repute; the entire and total want of encouragement towards those who devote their lives to the study of natural philosophy, political economy, statistics, and geography; the difficulty in acquiring those sciences for the study of which it is almost impossible to obtain the requisite books; the certainty that an author could derive no pecuniary recompence for his midnight labours by the publication of his works; — such a concurrence of disheartening circumstances could not but have a baneful influence as to the general instruction of the country; and it is less surprizing that the Portuguese are behind most European countries in literature, than that so many individuals should really be found in whom the love of science has proved strong enough to have braved and overcome all these obstacles and dangers. What would have been the situation of England, Germany, and France, if the governments of those countries had prohibited the reading of news-papers and other periodical journals; if a terrible inquisition had been constantly on the watch to prevent the works of profound instructors in the art of thinking from being read, and to check the diffusion of others in which the most important subjects of human knowlege are discussed; and if a police, stern as it is ignorant, should constantly have marked out to the sovereign and his ministers, as objects of suspicion, all those who are laboriously endeavoring to extend the boundaries of science?'

Lately, more students have entered the academies of Lisbon and Oporto, and the other establishments for public instruction, than formerly. The Revolution seems to have engendered, as one of its first-born children, the spirit of inquiry; and, if this spirit has gathered strength to roam abroad, we are sanguine enough to believe that the Inquisition has irrecoverably lost its terrors. French gold has produced a temporary re-action in Portugal among the soldiery; and the sway of a priesthood, who have for ages held the mass of the country in the bondage of ignorance and superstition, was not likely to be stopped at once. Such people, steeped in licentiousness, are always ready tools for mischief in the hands of their priests, and stupidly forge chains for themselves: but, if education be diffused, and the spirit of inquiry be abroad, the chains which in their weakness and credulity they have formed to-day, in their strength and wisdom they will break to-morrow on the heads of their unprincipled deceivers. If we turn our eyes from Portugal and her corrupted army, to cast them on Greece and her heroic sons, we see a country renewing her long faded splendor after the lapse of ages; and by her own unaided energies, — to the reproach and disgrace of Christian Europe, — struggling against the brutal and ferocious Turk, her tyrant and tormentor, and earning by consummate bravery the guerdon of freedom and independence. While, engaged in other contemplations, we have brooded over the meanness and corruption of human nature, *there*, inspired by hope, we contemplate it employed in the glorious work of regeneration.

ART. III. *Parallèle de la Puissance Anglaise et Russe*, &c.; *i. e.* A Parallel between the English and the Russian Power, relatively to Europe. With a Sketch of Greece. By M. DE PRADT, formerly Archbishop of Mechlin. 8vo. pp. 254. Paris. April, 1823. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 7*s*.

MOUNTED on his velocipede, the indefatigable Abbé DE PRADT travels with a celerity which makes us poor breathless critics pant and "toil after him in vain:" — our very eyes are strained in looking at him. He seems even to have the property of ubiquity: while he touches the soil of Europe with his right foot, his left is stretched to the continent of America: while he dips one hand in the Nile or the Niger, by an extension of his arm he is bathing the other in the Ganges or the Indies.*

The style and character of this author's writings are too well known to require from us many observations on them now: they are exceedingly rambling and declamatory, sometimes sentimental, full of wild speculation and confident prophecy; and no failure of his predictions has the power to daunt him. Scarcely twelve months ago, he described the sovereigns of Europe as spell-bound, or rather as cage-bound, and told us that they were all inclosed under an iron net from which none could ever escape to the annoyance of another; — but, somehow, France has contrived to break the bars which held her, for she has actually invaded the territories of her peninsular neighbour, not only without opposition from other powers, but assisted by some and not discouraged by the rest. M. DE P.'s present object is to counsel France *in the choice of a Protector!* “The Protectorate of Europe,” to adopt his fantastical and not very appropriate expression, is divided between England and Russia; the Continent is placed between these two banners; and every state must range itself under the one or the other of them. How then are the mighty fallen, and what a humiliating admission is this for a Frenchman to make! How often has the Cæsar of the North, and every member of the Holy Alliance, knelt before the imperial throne of France, and crouched under the feet of Napoleon, when her destinies were wielded by his vigorous arm: but now, it seems, France is only a secondary state, and must court the alliance, and seek the protection of either England or Russia! *France seek protection?* Against whom and against what? She has, however, made her election: she deserves the hug if she invites the bear; and, should she expire under his embraces, nobody will pity her fate.

---

* See another work by the Abbé, reported in our Number for September, published with this Appendix.

M. DE PRADT is a picturesque writer: but his figures are like those that we see in the clouds in stormy weather, displaying rocks, forests, giants, and monsters of all shapes, melting into each other without any distinct and definite outline. For example:

> ‘If there exist two great powers, on that very account there exist likewise two great rivalries. Represent to yourself two mighty streams, departing from one common source, and running separately in parallel directions; their waters, though always near, will never mix. Thus, united against Napoleon, England and Russia found themselves disunited by his political decease, which was their common work. His tomb became the point of departure for their separation, and the allies of Leipsick and Waterloo will be rivals for ages yet to come. Rome and Carthage did not regard each other with greater jealousy, nor Cæsar and Pompey more divide the city of Romulus. We see England and Russia exhibiting themselves before the eyes of Europe, *each offering its succour to the feeble*: we seem to hear two heralds, placed at the two extremities of Europe, making the whole concave ring with their alternate invitations for her to approach them.’ (P. 6.)

An academical education, as Junius said of Sir William Draper, has given the Abbé an unlimited command over the most beautiful figures of speech; and towns, tombs, and rivers, trumpets, heralds, and heroes, dance through his pages in all the mazes of metaphorical confusion.

With great earnestness, and much to his own credit, the Abbé has labored, however ineffectually, to persuade the infatuated government of his own country to form an alliance rather with free, civilized, and polished England, than with barbarous, ignorant, and despotic Russia.* For this purpose, with the assistance of some of our demi-official pamphlets, he has presented a summary of the constituent and essential parts of British power and wealth, under the various heads of Population, Finances, Commerce, Colonies, Army, Navy, &c., comparing them with the corresponding resources of Russia. It is not, says he, 'to the personal glory of England that I propose to erect a monument by this undertaking, but to that of civilization itself, of which this empire is at once the measure and the work: for England could neither have founded nor have maintained her power but by the extension of civilization throughout the world. It will follow from the lesson imparted by the example of England, that the art of being happy ourselves consists in doing only good to others, and in listening only to the voice of reason.'

On the subject of population, we are favored with an abundance of poetical flourish, interspersed with some strange paradoxical remarks on the different effects which war is supposed to produce on the nations of the Continent and on Great Britain.

'Population is the true basis of the strength of states; and that agent, which cultivates, which works, fights, traffics, and extracts riches from the sea and the soil, must be regarded as the first in importance, since every thing is derived from it. Its presence vivifies all around it, and its absence is followed by sterility. Man is that universal agent. His presence is to states what the presence of the sun is to the earth: without the first, no strength exists in the state; without the second, no fruits are given to the earth, no sap to plants; — all is inert and dead.' —

---

* M. DE P. so far denies, however, that Russia is *barbarous*, that he describes her as in a state of incipient and progressive civilization. The Russians, he says, could never have reached Paris twice, as barbarians; civilization opened the roads for them. (P. 153.) He adds that, among all the reproaches (well or ill founded) which have been cast against the members of the Holy Alliance, they deserve none more than the censure of having introduced Russia to any part in the decision of affairs in the south of Europe. (P. 159.)

'An advance in population has taken place in England during a period entirely devoted to war; a circumstance generally more hostile than favorable to human increase. In comparing this fact abstractedly with the case on the Continent, we may be surprized at it: but a little reflection shews that an event, which desolates like a pestilence on the Continent, becomes mitigated by those preservatives which nature and civilization have conferred on England. Indeed she is so situated by nature, and so circumstanced by constitution, *that what does mischief to others does good to her: what throws others back impels her forwards; and what thins the ranks of other countries recruits hers.* War affects only the coffers of England, her cities and her fields remain inviolate. Devastation, the usual attendant on war, expires at the feet of her shores,' &c. &c.—'While almost all the capitals of Europe have been occupied by the enemy,—while twenty princes, fugitives and wanderers, have returned with humble steps to their mutilated territories,—England, immoveable and impregnable in the midst of the waves, attracted all the gold and merchandise of the universe. She fed, clothed, and armed both foes and friends: the arts, encouraged by necessity, proceeded to perfection, and at the same time created a want and an inclination for their productions: unceasingly employed in satisfying a taste which had become universal, they opened doors which force had closed against them. In such a state of things, it is evident that, for a single man lost on the field of battle, industry called forth a hundred to contribute towards reproduction, which without it would have been interdicted. Thus it was from the very bosom of death, from the abyss in which the population of other countries was swallowed, that life was regenerated and multiplied in England. This progress, the principle of which was ill understood, deceived eyes accustomed to contemplate the ordinary effects produced by war on the Continent: the march of England escaped them; it proceeded with an inverse celerity to that of the Continent. There, war is a suspension from laborious industry, which is the spring and principle of reproduction in human societies; and man, struck by the sword, falls uncompensated: but in England the extension of work is commensurate with the extension of war; and accordingly, England, herself inaccessible to the ravages of that war, superior both in capital and industry, sees all the world, without the exception of her very enemies, applying to her to provide for their wants. The temple of Janus is to her the temple of Plutus; and, when the doors of the former are thrown open to let loose desolation and slaughter on the Continent, they give entrance, in favor of England, to the spoils and tributes of the world, conquered by her trident or drawn from her workshops.'

The British poet-laureat himself could not indite a birthday ode in measure more musical, or more majestical. It rejoices us that our country is regarded by the Abbé as standing on a pedestal of such incomparable elevation; and may she never descend from her pre-eminence!—but we apprehend that his notions as to the cause of our insular prosperity, and of the continental depression, are not very generally entertained. It might have been presumed that the returning Peace would have set in motion the long suspended industry of the Continent, have broken down that monopoly of employment which gave wealth to us at the expence of our neighbours, and have thrown back a share of it to the eager hands of those from whom it had been so long withheld. The kings of the Continent might have hailed the return of peace; and from Amalthea's horn, of which we kept exclusive possession during the war, they would now have plucked a portion of the fruit. It seems, however, that they are not impressed with the policy of the author's speculation: tired with a seven years' peace, they rush again to war; while England alone, the richest country in the universe, whose riches (it seems) are derived from war, and whose resources are unfathomable and inexhaustible, — England alone looks on with cold indifference and disinterested apathy! How can these things be? The Abbé is deceived: war has not given wealth to England, nor is she so circumstanced by policy or situation that 'what does mischief to other countries does good to her, and what throws others back impels her forwards.' Beguiled by a paradox, he has uttered an absurdity. — In our late protracted debates on the subject of the negotiations, not a single statesman refrained from exclaiming against the enormous iniquity of France in her invasion of Spain. It was admitted by every one of them that the flames of war being again lighted up, the conflagration might probably spread from one end of Europe to the other; that we might ultimately be compelled — and compulsion must always be disadvantageous — to take up arms; that we stood at the door while a foul deed was perpetrating within; and that all which we had ventured, or at any rate *deemed prudent* to do, was to exercise a mild dissuasion, a gentle unoffending remonstrance against the truculent invader! Why? Because the mighty energies of England are paralyzed by Debt. The righteousness of the cause of Spain was not once questioned: but England must compute and calculate the perils to which her own safety would be exposed, before she dared boldly to spring on the assassin, wrench the sword from his hand, and rescue the victim. It was not thus that England comported herself in foreign affairs in the days of Elizabeth; or when the great mind of a successful usurper, intent on spreading her renown to the uttermost parts of the earth, struck mankind with astonishment, seeming to ennoble instead of debasing, to use the words of Mr. Hume, "that people whom he had reduced to subjection." It was the boast of Cromwell that he would render the name of an Englishman as much feared, and as much revered, as ever the name of a Roman had been.—Nor would England thus have comported herself *now*, but for the overwhelming weight of DEBT which encumbers her: she must now restrain her generous indignation and quench her feelings at the dictate of prudence.

After having exhibited with appropriate pomp the wealth, power, and resources of this kingdom, the Abbé makes us smile when, fearing that he had too much dazzled the eyes of his countrymen by the excess of splendor in the object thus presented to them, he directs their attention to a dark spot or two (ch. xi.) for the purpose of consolation and composure. One of these dark spots, on which the foreigner may rest his aching eyes, is what he calls the order or construction of property, 'from which the great mass of the people of England are excluded. Of a population of twelve millions of men, two-thirds are almost entirely shut out from the possession of any sort of property: their subsistence depends on their labor, and therefore on the wants and tastes, real or factitious, of the rest of the world, rather than on the cultivation of their own fields. This evil arises from the two-fold concentration of large territorial property and large commercial capitals.' (P. 96.) Having expatiated on the nature of this consoling evil, and having previously exhausted all the stores of his eloquence in vaunting the omnipotence of England, M. DE P. gravely asserts that she is one of the most dependent of all nations! It will puzzle most of our readers to guess why: but it is because the extent of her mercantile transactions is so great, that she depends on her commerce with all the rest of the world! — Nothing is more true than the fact, nothing more false than the inference. With all due deference to the Abbé, we must take the liberty of asserting that it is from the very extent of her foreign commerce that England derives her complete and perfect independence. The Continent presents a very different state of things, he continues; because property there is not constituted as in England: there, the mass of the people live almost entirely on their own territorial productions; while a portion of England subsists on the consumptions of the whole world, depends on them, and would perish if she were struck by a simultaneous interdiction, a prohibition which should become general against receiving her goods.* How could that portion live which draws subsistence from foreign consumptions? and, in that case, what would be the fate of England?

---

* '*L'Angleterre périrait si elle était atteinte par un interdiction combinée, ou par une* fin de non-recevoir *qui deviendrait générale.*' (P. 99.)

It is not less true in commerce than in philosophy that action and re-action are equal: a flea cannot skip on the earth without giving an impulse equal to the resistance which it sustains. Does the Abbé need to be informed that all foreign countries carry on their commerce with us, not for our benefit but their own? it is the *quid pro quo.* He had just before told us that to England war was a source of wealth;—that the temple of Janus is converted to the temple of Plutus for her benefit; — and that the same doors which let loose desolation on the Continent are crowded with the spoils and tributes of the world, conquered by her trident or drawn from her workshops. If *Bonaparte*, with his cordon of douaniers, at every river and every port of his subject-kings, failed in his wanton attempt to exclude British goods from the Continent, we have but little ground to fear that any future effort to execute the same act of folly will be more successful. Were the commerce of England limited to a single country, and in the event of a war with that country she should refuse to take our customary supply of goods, there would be a corresponding displacement of workmen on both sides, creating mutual inconvenience: but it is precisely because the commerce of England is *not* limited to any single country, but is extended to every country in the world, that she is dependent on none. All the Abbé's reasoning on this question appears extremely weak and inconsequential.

At the close of this volume is an animated appeal in behalf of the Greeks, and a justification of the work of regeneration which we ardently hope is going on successfully in the Archipelago. Under the most disheartening circumstances, that brave people have marched onwards in the road to freedom and independence, struggling against Mussulman tyranny and Mussulman bondage. They have thrown off the abominable yoke; they have established a representative government in southern Greece; they have suffered butchery in Scio and in Cyprus: but, undaunted at the ferocity of their brutal foes, they have never flinched from the conflict, and have nobly earned the independent, and we hope ere long the quiet possession of the land of their forefathers. How is it that, while in Germany, Swisserland, and even in degraded France itself, societies have sprung up to assist with money, arms, and clothing, the glorious cause for which the Greeks are contending; how is it that in *this* land of freedom so little *useful* sympathy has been awakened! — The Abbé DE PRADT deserves great praise for the zeal and eloquence with which he has not only now, but on former occasions, defended the cause of the Greeks. Constantinople must be their object, he says; nothing should divert them from marching thither; all the success of their revolution depends on that step.—We may wish them at Constantinople, but should tremble if the success of their revolution depended on their arrival there.

Art. IV. *Les Conseils du Trone*, &c.; *i. e.* Advice from the Throne; given by Frederick the Great to the Kings and People of Europe, as a Commentary on all present and all future Congresses, &c. Edited by P. R. *Auguis*. 8vo. pp. 548. Paris. 1823. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 10s. 6*d*.

This is certainly a very entertaining volume; full of events, portraitures of royal manners, memoirs, delineations of character, and intrigues of courts. "The Great Frederick" was one who spoke his mind freely: he was not only a king among men, but a man among kings: society had given him a civil crown, but nature gave him an intellectual one; and he was not only a warrior but a wit. It happens, too, that from his own love of literary society and pursuits, and from the familiarity in which he indulged many of his friends, we are as well acquainted with the personal character of Frederick II. as with that of any modern sovereign. Much we have learned from his own writings, and much from those of *Voltaire* and other French savans; the *Mémoires de la Princesse de Bareith*, his sister, published ten or twelve years ago, let us into a great many family-anecdotes; and M. *Thiébault's Souvenirs de Vingt Ans de Sejour à Berlin* seem hardly to have left much for the gleaners.

From a lively, critical, sarcastic, and *thief-catching* preface, which introduces this work, we understand that the object of its publication is to complete the collection of the royal author's writings. It is divided into five parts, of which the 'Works' constitute the first four. The *first* is intitled 'Mornings of the King of Prussia;' being a sort of exposé, for the instruction of Frederick-William, his nephew and the heir to his crown, of the principal events of his government from the year 1740 to 1769 inclusive. 2. 'Particulars of his Military, Private, and Literary Life;' enlarging on events briefly introduced in the preceding part, and explaining the principles of his policy. 3. Some opuscula. 4. Letters to various personages, the Marquis *de Valori*, Marshal *Saxe*, Baron *Grimm*, M. *D'Alembert*, &c. &c. 5. 'An Account of the Siege of Asoph by the Russians, and of the Journey of Peter I.

Peter I. in Holland;' both of which were found in his Majesty's cabinet at Potsdam.

Now where are the vouchers for the genuineness of these writings? It is very well remarked by the editor that the lot of great personages is like that of the gods, — they are made to speak, but their oracles are often supposititious. Cæsar being dead, his pretended memoirs, constantly cited but never shewn, served as a preparation for the triumvirate, and for the dominion of Octavius. Mercantile avidity may draw a profit from these frauds, even though they answer not the purpose of ambition. With respect to these pieces, however, we should say that they carry with them considerable internal evidence of the genuineness of the sign-manual; that they have much of the causticity and epigrammatic sarcasm, of the dry humor, ease, and mingled sternness which characterize the acknowleged compositions of this royal writer: but such peculiarities are not excluded from imitation, in the first place; and, in the second, it would be no easy matter to ascertain how much of his acknowleged writings belonged really to Frederick, and how much to those of his confidential secretaries and friends to whom he was in the habit of intrusting the necessary task of revising his manuscripts, and preparing them for the press; of planing and polishing, for he was a very rough workman. Frederick wrote French and spoke it like a man who had never been out of Germany, or gone farther into France than Strasbourg; and *Voltaire* had reason to boast that he was accustomed to wash his Majesty's foul linen.

Among other curiosities contained in this volume, are two or three specimens of Frederick's heterography; and, as they are very short, we shall give them:

' *Note écrite par Frédéric, en marge d'un Mémoire qui lui avait été remis dans une Assemblée du Consistoire Supérieur, sur les inconvéniens qu'il y avait a faire accompagner les criminels jusqu'au lieu de l'exécution, par des Ecclésiastiques, en chantant des Cantiques, et en récitant des prières :*

' " *J'ai interdit des preters pour les grand crimes quand des hommes ne voulant pas se tuér eux mémes, crainte de l'Enfer, tuent un Enfant pour avoir le temps de faire pénitence, ou dans les crimes affreux, pour empêcher la perte de deux citoyens, l'homicide simple de soy même étant préférable à l'assassinat d'un autre, dont le coupable est encore puni de mort, dans les mauvaises actions, ou il n'y a pas atrossité outrée, le prêtre peut jouer ses rolle comme l'ordinaire, mais je ne suis bien trouvé de l'avoir interdit dans ces cas exsepté, parce que sela a fait plus d'impretion que les potenses et les roües.*

' " FRÉDÉRIC." '

' *Fragment d'une Lettre de la Main de Frédéric à M. Achard.*

" *Mônssieur, ci quelqun fut james surpris! C'estoit moi à la lecture de vostre lettre, oux par un hazard inopiné, je me vis érigé* *en censeur et en critique; jamès auteur, je n'ai eu l'ambition de l'estre, et ci pareille pencée me fut venue la connoissance que j'ai de l'infériorité des mes forces l'aurait bientôt suprimée.*"

Billet écrit de la Main de Frederic, avec l'Orthographe telle que ce Prince l'a mise.

"*Potsdam, le 22 Juin, 1782.*

Je salue le segretaire perpétuel de l'academie, et Come l'on dit que le 24 il passera par ici pour Marier sa fille a brandebour, j'espere de pouvoir Mettre En personne Mon Hommage a ses piéds.

"FRÉDÉRIC."

Frederick's hand-writing was very bad, and the autograph letter to M. *Achard* is full of erasures. There is every reason to believe that all which he wrote passed under one or more revisions; and that his foul linen, to repeat *Voltaire's* dirty simile, was washed and rinsed in three or four different waters, before it obtained sufficient whiteness to be shewn in public. Yet in reading the letters which are given in his posthumous works, we might say that Frederick's style would sustain a comparison with that of *Voltaire* itself; and Latin quotations are occasionally interspersed, though this was a language of which he knew nothing.

We have called the Berlin preface, which ushers in this volume, a 'thief-catching' preface: for no Bow-street officer ever pursued his prey with keener scent, or ever shewed more activity in hunting the burglar or the pickpocket through his various windings to the last hiding-hole, than the writer of this introduction has shewn in detecting the literary frauds played off by a great many celebrated characters, hitherto unsuspected. In every country which has an abundance of money, abundance of genius and talent is to be had for it; and therefore it must not be believed that the Czarina Catherine and the King of Prussia are the only great personages, who have had the merit ascribed to them of composing books of which they never wrote a line. It is exceedingly amusing to see such persons put on their trials, and brought to the bar of detection for obtaining literary honors under false pretences; such as M. *de Choiseul*, Count *Caylus*, Lady Hamilton, M. *de Segur*, Baron *Grimm*, M. *de Villeroi*, *Lebrun*, *Delaborde*, *Bourgoign*, *Mirabeau*, and fifty others whose honesty had not been questioned; — but our business is not with them; we merely dropped in at the Old Bailey *en passant*, and now we must walk out of it.

In the first *Matinée*, Frederick gives an account of the origin of his house, the position of his kingdom, and the manners of its inhabitants.

' " William the Great, by his splendid actions, first raised us above the common level of princes of the empire; and in 1701, which is not a very great while ago, vanity placed a crown on the head of my grandfather: from which period we must date our true strength and consistence, for that put us in a situation to dispute as kings and treat as equals with all the powers of the north. If we were to reckon up the virtues of our ancestors, we should easily see that it is not to such advantages that our family is indebted for its aggrandizement: the greater part of the princes of our house conducted themselves rather sorrily: but chance and circumstances have favored us. I would even observe to you, that our first diadem was placed on one of the vainest and most fickle of heads, and a body crooked and humpty. But I see, my dear nephew, that I leave you in some uncertainty as to our origin. They pretend that the Comte *de Hohenzollern* was of a great family: but, to say the truth, no one had fewer titles to boast: in other points, we have been very respectable gentlemen for some time past, and let that satisfy us." '

The second *Matinée* relates to ' Religion:' a ticklish subject!

' " There is nothing which so much tyrannizes over the understanding and the heart as religion, because it accords neither with our own passions nor with the political views which a monarch ought to have. If he fears God — or rather hell — he becomes a Capuchin. Does a favorable opportunity present itself for getting possession of a neighbouring province? an army of devils rise up to forbid it: we are weak enough to believe that it is an act of injustice, and award ourselves the chastisement due to our crime. Are we desirous to make a treaty with any power? If we bring to mind only that we are Christians, all is lost! we shall constantly be duped. As to war, it is a trade in which the slightest scruples will spoil every thing. In fact, where is the honest man who would undertake it, if he had not the right to lay down rules in justification of pillage, fire, and carnage. I do not mean to say, however, that we ought to publish impiety and atheism, but a man must *think*, according to the rank which he fills. All the Popes who have had common sense have maintained systems of religion favourable to their own aggrandizement; and it would be the climax of folly for princes to trouble themselves about petty miseries, which are made only for the people. The best method of keeping fanaticism out of your dominions is to have the most perfect indifference on the subject of religion. Believe me, my dear nephew, the Holy Mother has her little caprices, like any other mother. Resolve to be a philosopher on this point, and you will never see any disputes in your kingdom about religion; for parties are formed only on the weaknesses of princes and their ministers. I have one important observation to make to you, viz. that your ancestors acted in the most judicious manner possible: they effected a reform which gave them the very air of apostles — while they were well filling their purses. It is, without dispute, the most rational change that ever was accomplished: but, since there is nothing more to be gained, and it might be somewhat too hazardous, at the present moment, to follow their footsteps, be content with toleration." — "As our ancestors became Christians in the ninth century to please the emperors; Lutherans in the fifteenth, to seize the goods of the church; and Reformers in the sixteenth, to please the Hollanders, on account of the succession of Cleves; we may be allowed to become *Indifferentists* for the tranquillity of our states." '

No man has ever been half so much calumniated as Macchiavel: through ignorance or malice, he has been accused as the apologist of tyranny while he was in the very act of clipping its wings and plucking out its talons; by publishing its secrets and exposing it in all its hideous deformity, he hoped that mankind would be disgusted with the monster. Frederick, mistaking or affecting to mistake the real object of the Florentine secretary, undertook to refute the maxims of "The Prince," and published his Anti-Macchiavel; and we are here presented with a singular, though probably not a solitary instance of a man becoming a convert to the very maxims which he has employed himself in refuting. Much of what we have taken from the second *Matinée* might have been written by Macchiavel in cutting irony, but it was written by Frederick in still more cutting sincerity and truth: — much of what we have not taken might have been written by *Voltaire*, and probably was.

'Justice' is the subject of the third *Matinée*: but she is blind; so was Frederick; at least they seldom saw each other. —'Policy' is the title of the fourth *Matinée*. Did Frederick surpass all other princes in political profligacy, or has he merely eclipsed them in the unblushing impudence of confessing it?

' "As, among men, it is agreed that to dupe our equals is a base and criminal action, we have been obliged to seek for some term which might soften the matter, and *Policy* is the word chosen. Without question, this word could only have been selected in favor of sovereigns, because it was not deemed quite decent to treat us like rogues and rascals. What I understand by the word Policy, my dear nephew, is that we must always be on the watch to dupe others; this is the way, not indeed to have the advantage, but to be on a par with them: for you may be thoroughly assured that all the states in the world run the same course. This principle being laid down, blush not to make alliances with the sole view of deriving the whole advantage from them yourself, and never be guilty of the enormous folly of adhering to them, when it is your interest to abandon them. Let this maxim also be ever present to your mind, that to strip your neighbours is to deprive them of the means of annoying you." '

It must, in fairness, be acknowleged that Frederick was in policy what Longinus was in philosophy and criticism, "the great sublime he drew." — A prince, he continues, should always exhibit himself in the most favorable light:

'"When I was Prince Royal, I had but little of the soldier about me; I loved my ease, good cheer, wine, and women. After I became King, I became soldier, philosopher, and poet. I slept on straw, ate the ammunition-bread at the head of my troops, drank very little *before my subjects**, and affected to despise women. I always march without guards, and proceed night and day; my suite is select, not numerous; my travelling carriage is quite plain, but well-hung, and I sleep in it just as well as in my bed. I appear to pay very little attention to my mode of living; a single lacquey, a cook, and a pastry-cook, constituting the whole of my kitchen-equipage. I order my own dinner, and do it pretty well too, for I know the country, and always ask for that in which it excels, whether game, fish, or meat. When I arrive at any place, I always pretend to be fatigued, and shew myself to the people with a shabby surtout and an uncombed wig. These *nothings* often make a striking impression. I give audience to every body except priests, ministers, and monks: as these gentlemen are accustomed to speak at a great distance, I hear them from my window; and a page receives them, and makes my compliments to them, at the door." — "Up to the present day, every body believes that it is the love I entertain for my subjects which induces me to visit my states as often as possible, and I let them indulge this fancy: but, to say the truth, this motive has very little to do with it. The fact is that I am obliged to act thus, and for this reason: my kingdom is despotic, and he that is at the head has the sole charge of it. If I do not travel over my estates, my governors would put themselves in my place, and gradually throw off the principles of obedience and adopt those of independence." — "I have done every thing that I can to gain a reputation in the belles lettres, and have been more fortunate than Cardinal *Richelieu*, for, — mercy on me! I pass for an author: but, between ourselves, those learned gentry are a very sorry race, and the whole tribe of them are insupportable for their vanity. A poet would refuse my kingdom rather than sacrifice one couplet of his fine verses. As author-ship is an employment which diverts me from the more serious occupations of the throne, I compose only when I have nothing better to do; and to give myself greater facilities, I keep some *beaux esprits* at my court who take the trouble of methodizing my thoughts. In my last journey, you observed with what distinction I treated M. *D'Alembert*; he always dined at my table, and I was continually complimenting him. I have seen you express some surprize at the very marked attentions which I paid to this author: but do not you know that at Paris they listen to this philosopher as to an oracle; that he talks of nothing but my talents and my virtues; and that every where he maintains that I have all the characteristics of a great hero and a great king? Moreover, it is gratifying to me to hear myself praised with delicacy and discretion, for, to speak the truth, I am far from being insensible to flattery. I know very well that all my actions must not be referred to me: but *D'Alembert* is so bland and insinuating when he sits by my side, that he never opens his mouth but to say the most obliging things of me. *Voltaire* was of a different character, and therefore I dismissed him. I made a merit of this to *Maupertuis*, but at bottom I was afraid of him, because I was not certain of being able at all times to remunerate him equally; and I knew perfectly well that the subtraction of a single crown from his salary would have brought me a thousand raps over the knuckles. All things considered, and with the best advice, it was resolved that two rival-wits could never breathe the same air.—I forgot to tell you that, in the midst of my greatest misfortunes, I took care to pay these wits their pensions; if you touch the purse of such philosophers, they will immediately make the most revengeful war on you."

---

* As a commentary on this sentence, we quote a passage from another place:

'"Nature has given me propensities towards indulgence; I love good cheer, wine, coffee, and liqueurs: but my subjects believe that I am the most sober prince in the world. When I eat in public, my German cook prepares the dinner, I drink beer, and two or three glasses of wine; — when I am in my private apartments, my French cook does his utmost to satisfy my palate, and I confess that I am a little fastidious. I am near to my bed, and it is that alone which recovers me from the effects of what I drink."'

After some edifying lessons in hypocrisy, Frederick thus concludes his fourth *Matinée*:

"I thus make you acquainted with man, my dear nephew, at my own expence. Believe me, he is ever the slave to his passions; self-love is his glory; and all his virtues are founded on his own interest and his own ambition. Would you pass for a king? Approach crime fearlessly. Would you pass for a sage? Practise dissimulation."

The topic of the fifth *Matinée* is 'State Policy,' which the sceptered robber reduces to three principles: 1. keep all that you have, and get all that you can; 2. never make any alliance but for your own advantage, and break it off the moment that it suits you to do so; 3. under the most disastrous circumstances, make yourself feared and respected. The first and second of these maxims are sufficiently profligate; but, according to Frederick, they are not the less sound on that account, and he illustrates the use of them by his own conduct on various occasions. On ascending his throne, his first care was to see how the coffers were filled. His father's economy had enabled him to form and execute great projects, and four principal objects presented themselves, — Silesia, Polish Prussia, Dutch Guelderland, and Swedish Pomerania. "I fixed my views," he says, "on Silesia. — France wished to take away the empire from the house of Austria: — I desired nothing better. France wished to establish in Italy a state for the Infanta: — I was delighted with the project, because it could only be done at the expence of the Queen. France at last conceived the noble scheme of marching to the gates of Vienna: — it was there that I eagerly expected her, in order that I might seize on Silesia. Have but money, my dear nephew, assume an air of confident superiority with your troops, wait for circumstances, and you may rest assured that you will not only be able to preserve your states but enlarge them."

The sixth and last *Matinée* treats on 'Military Affairs,' the management and discipline of troops, rewards, punishments, &c. Here every thing is bottomed on trickery and rascality, but a great deal of knowlege of human nature is displayed; and certainly no one better knew the art of inspiring troops with enthusiasm, of leading them on to victory, or of raising their spirits after defeat. "When you take the command," he observes, "never suffer your Generals to *see through you*; affect an air of conscious superiority on military matters; and always attribute to them the disaster of any moment and the unfortunate issue of any enterprize. You saw how I treated *[illegible]* and *Finck* for having surrendered at Maxen; *Zastrow*, for having surrendered at Schweidnitz: and *[illegible]*, for having advised the giving up of the citadel of Glatz. In fact, however, *the fault was not theirs, but mine*." — After such gratuitous confessions of every thing that is base and abominable, made too without a single expression of regret, or the slightest "compunctious visiting of nature," we hardly know which most to admire, the infamy of the actions or the shameless avowal of them.

Among his other confessions, Frederick acknowleges, however, that his wars had brought Prussia to the brink of perdition.

> ' "Now that my blood is running in a colder current," he remarks, "I see all my glory vanished into air. I have made a great noise in the world and gained nothing! When I compare the situation of my kingdom in 1756 with what it is now, I am afflicted and confounded. Since that period I have lost by war nearly three hundred thousand men; its population is reduced more than a third; the breed of horses and other animals is diminished more than half; the treasures of my father are gone," &c. &c. — "You see, therefore, that you have only one step to take in order to be

ruined, and that is to engage in a new war: however glorious it may be, it will crush you."'

Here we shall pause for the present, with the intention of resuming this volume at a future time. It is clear that these precious 'Counsels' were intended for publication, because they are expressly addressed to the 'Kings and *People* of Europe, and designed to serve as a Commentary on the Proceedings of all present and future Congresses;'—and what an admirable commentary do they make! Written, perhaps, forty years ago, how prophetic were they of the cunning, perfidy, cant, and hypocrisy which we have all witnessed in certain congresses of the present day, where poisonous deeds are prepared in perfumed words; and where, with the sounds of honor, truth, liberty, and public good on the lips of an alliance of despots, a foul conspiracy is at work in their hearts to rob the human race of every thing which makes life worth having. And how? As the Israelites of old were wont to dedicate their children to the God of the Ammonites, so is the idolatrous worship of these mighty Molochs continued in the present days:—we sacrifice ourselves and our children in holocausts at their unholy shrines! Whom, then, have the *people* of despotic countries to blame? Themselves: their own pusillanimity or corruption.

> "War is a game which, were their subjects wise,
> Kings would not play at. Nations would do well
> To extort their truncheons from the puny hands
> Of heroes, whose infirm and baby minds
> Are gratified with mischief; and who spoil,
> Because men suffer it, their toy the world."
>
> COWPER.

If Frederick had not practised the maxims which he recommends, it would have been no more than charitable to give him credit for having indulged a sarcastic vein of irony in the composition of them: but he took a *living king*, as the lecturers at hospitals take a *dead subject*, namely, to teach the anatomy of his frame by dissection. The skeleton is in very good preparation, and we recommend it to the attentive study of all nations.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. V. *Essai sur les Irritations Intermittentes, &c.*; *i. e.* An Essay on Intermittent Irritations, or a New Theory of periodical Diseases, masked Fevers, pernicious Fevers, and intermittent Fevers in general, explained according to the Doctrine of M. *Broussais*, and illustrated by numerous Cases. By P. J. Mongellaz, M. D., of the Faculty of Medicine of Paris, &c. 2 Vols, 8vo, pp. 859. Paris. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 18*s.* sewed.

The doctrines of *Broussais* have lately attracted a large share of the attention of medical men throughout all the schools in Europe: but more especially in Paris, the immediate theatre of his exhibitions, as well as the focus from which his lessons are diffusing themselves abroad, and to a certain extent effecting a revolution in the opinions of physicians on the theory of febrile diseases. His boldness of assertion, confidence, and enthusiasm, have done more even than the display of talent which he has exhibited, in causing his doctrines to be received, and inspiring with a kindred ardor many of his ablest pupils. Let us hear the language in which he speaks of his own system. 'It appears to me that the physiological doctrine, which is now so rapidly propagated among ourselves, and is even disseminating itself among foreigners, rests on foundations that cannot be shaken. — My chief aim, above every thing, is to be useful to mankind. The tables of mortality have already furnished decisive evidence in favor of the physiological doctrine; and if I can trust the anticipations which I have formed, it ought, when carried to the full perfection of which it is susceptible, to have in a short time a more striking influence on population than even the discovery of the vaccine inoculation.' (*Examen des Doct. Med.* Preface.)

The grand object of M. *Broussais*' labors has been to prove that fever always depends on local irritation, and that the seat of this irritation is to be found in the mucous membrane of the stomach and small intestines. *Gastro-enteritis* is, in his opinion, a disease of very frequent occurrence, and in its acute form being the proximate cause of fevers of all kinds, putrid, malignant, nervous, intermittent, or remittent; and it is by the same presumed inflammation of the mucous membrane that measles, small-pox, and scarlet fever commence their progress. On the other hand, the chronic *gastro-enteritis*, he asserts, gives birth to hypochondriasis, dyspepsia, pyrosis, cardialgia, bulimia, induration of the mesenteric glands, enlargement of the liver, the dropsy of drunkards, and other diseases which we have not room to enumerate. — Like most builders of systems, he has been led to consider his favorite malady as the most important and widely prevailing of all, the corner-stone of the nosological edifice, and the means of explaining all that has hitherto been obscure or inexplicable in the morbid manifestations of the human frame. We must remark, however, that the belief that fever is the effect of local irritation was long ago entertained by different distinguished individuals, among whom *Hoffman* and *Baglivi* stand pre-eminent. Both of these authors refer some species of fever to an inflammatory affection of the stomach and bowels; and, more recently, our countryman Dr. Bancroft has extended the same doctrine to the yellow fever: while the hypothesis of Dr. Clutterbuck (see M. R. vol. xcix. p. 46.) supposes the local inflammation of fever to exist in the encephalon. The progress of medical knowlege, and particularly of pathological anatomy, has tended, in a remarkable manner, to limit the number of what are named essential fevers, or those in which no local cause of irritation can be discovered; and, when we look back to the dissections of fever-cases by Dr. James Lind, we see how completely many of them agreed with different phlegmasiæ. One of these cases of supposed fever was in fact pleuritis; another, carditis; and a third, peritonitis. (*Lind, Dissertat. on Fevers and Infect.*)

Still, however, much remains to be done in the pathology of fever. Dissection reveals to us numerous morbid changes, some of which have given origin to the febrile excitement, while others have been the consequences of sympathetic irritation: to distinguish them from each other will always remain a difficult task in many forms of fever; and whosoever attempts to accomplish this object must proceed in a careful and minute observation of symptoms, and an accurate comparison of them with the appearances after death. To assume, as the essential cause of fever, any one species of local inflammation, is obviously to run into error: but we have no doubt that the advancement of pathological anatomy will serve more and more to establish the doctrine of the dependence of febrile disease on local irritation. Sometimes, this irritation will be found to have had its seat in one organ, and sometimes in another; and cases too, we fear, will not be wanting, in which the utmost skill and dexterity of the anatomist will fail to discover the seat of the morbid action. The great practical benefit, to be derived from this belief in the topical origin of fever, is a constant and watchful anxiety, on the part of the physician, to discover what organ is particularly affected, or even threatened, that he may instantly attempt its relief.

Of all the forms of fever, that which it seems most difficult to reconcile to the doctrine of local origin is the pure intermittent; and to elucidate this difficult subject, as well as to establish the truth of M. *Broussais'* hypothesis, is the object of the work before us. Its author is an able, erudite, and apparently favored pupil of Monsieur *B.*, to whom he dedicates his book as a testimony of homage and gratitude; but he is evidently inexperienced as a physician; — one who appears to have seen disease only under the eye of his master, dividing his time between the clinical lessons of *Broussais* and the labors of his study; and he confesses that '‘for ourselves, we have as yet seen little.’ (P. 675.)

The Doctor commences with some general remarks on irritation, and its periodical return or intermission; which, as he well remarks, is an attribute of the animal frame both in health and disease: the action of the heart and the respiratory muscles, the functions of the stomach and bowels and of the uterus, the alternations of sleep and watching, all proving how intimately it is interwoven with the animal system. In disease, too, even when a constant and unchanging source of irritation exists, we have intermission and exacerbation of symptoms presenting themselves in the most conspicuous manner. This is particularly illustrated by many cases of irremediable and organic alteration in the contents of the chest; more especially in diseases of the heart, where the cause of irritation is never absent, yet the patient enjoys frequent and sometimes almost regular intervals of perfect ease.

Intermittent diseases are shewn by M. MONGELLAZ to constitute a very extensive class. He has distinguished them into inflammatory, hæmorrhagic, sub-inflammatory or lymphatic, and nervous irritations: those affecting the external parts of the body being first considered, and, secondly, those affecting the internal. The range which the author has thus taken is very extensive, and hence he is enabled to present to his readers a very complete view of the subject. Much erudition is shewn by him in the rich store of materials which he has collected from every quarter, both in the more remote and in the modern records of medicine; and, with few exceptions, the cases have been selected with judgment and discrimination. We could have wished, however, that some of those from *Arnold Boot*, *Schulze*, and the *Acta Nat. Curiosor.*, had been omitted; as their appearance in more creditable company serves rather to throw a cloud over the character of their associates. (See pp. 82. 89. 102.)

By establishing in a distinct manner, on the testimony of reputable authors, the existence of intermittent inflammatory diseases, M. MONGELLAZ has prepared the way for the hypothesis of *Broussais*; which supposes that the true intermittent fever is always produced by inflammation of the mucous membrane of the stomach and small intestines. When we see that the periodical return of ophthalmic and other inflammations is prevented by the exhibition of cinchona, we are less staggered at the idea of its producing a cure in the presumed gastro-enteritis of M. *Broussais*: but, in all these cases of inflammation of an intermittent type, we are decidedly of opinion that the employment of depletion is necessary during their continuance; and that cinchona, without this aid, is not adequate to their cure. In intermittent fever itself, the known existence of local inflammation must be met by the use of the lancet, or topical depletion, and the administration of cinchona must be delayed until that diseased action has been subdued. If indolent enlargement or chronic inflammation exist in any viscus, during the continuance of intermittent fever, then local derangements are to be remedied by the judicious employment of mercury, or other deobstruents, and not by cinchona. All that we know of the mucous membrane of the digestive organs, both in health and in disease, opposes the hypothesis of M. *Broussais*; and inflammation, or even a tendency to it, in the digestive mucous membrane, is much more likely to be increased than removed by the exhibition of those hot peppers which are notoriously known to drive off the attack of ague, and occasionally to prevent its recurrence. The arsenical solution, too, is a remedy of the most approved efficacy in this disease; yet, in large doses, it will certainly induce that very inflammation of the mucous membrane of the stomach and intestines, which has been assumed by *Broussais* as the proximate cause of intermittent fever.

The following is a summary of the arguments by which the author has endeavored to establish the doctrine of his master:

'Supported by this mass of proofs, which we have developed in succession, and drawn from seven different sources; — 1. from the analogy which is generally acknowleged to exist between intermittent fever and certain pernicious fevers, which, as we have proved, are true intermittent phlegmasiæ, having their seat either in the external parts of the body or in the viscera; 2. from an examination of the causes of intermittent fever, which we have seen are all irritating or capable of producing inflammatory disease; and which, moreover, always act either directly or indirectly on the digestive system; 3. from an analysis of symptoms, by

> which we have been led to observe, among those of intermittent fever, several constant and unequivocal signs of inflammation of the digestive organs: 4. from certain modes in which intermittent fever terminates; by the external or internal developement of different phlegmasiæ, which supersede the fever by a kind of crisis; or by the expulsion from the digestive tube of some foreign body, or of worms: 5. from the agreement of the greater number of authors respecting the seat of intermittent fever; which they distinctly point out as in those very organs which the symptoms during life shew to be disordered, and after death are found to be injured: 6. from the discordant opinions of the same authors on the subject of the systems and hypothesis which they have invented, and respecting the treatment which they have employed in such fevers: 7. from the great majority of the dissections in these cases, which prove the existence of organic lesions, or of inflammation, in the digestive canal and its annexed viscera;— from this mass of evidence, then, we conclude in general terms, that intermittent fever is *always symptomatic of a local affection*; and that this local affection is *almost always an inflammation of the digestive mucous membrane, or of its annexed viscera*; and, finally, we infer that *intermittent fever is never essential*.' (P. 658.)

Dr. M. here evidently admits that *gastro-enteritis* is not always present in cases of intermittent fever; which, we believe, is more than M. *Broussais* will be disposed to acknowlege. On reviewing the facts on record, respecting the pathological anatomy of intermittent fever, the author draws the following conclusion:

> ‘From all these facts, which we have now stated, and the number of which might have been easily increased by a little reading, we would not infer that dissection always discovers the seat of intermittent fever, and uniformly exhibits to us remarkable organic lesions, to which we can refer the different symptoms constituting these fevers. But we conclude that, in the greatest number, three-fourths at least, of the persons who have died of intermittent fever, and whose bodies have been examined, there have been found in the digestive canal, and its annexed organs, the liver, spleen, pancreas, and mesentery, organic lesions so considerable as to have been capable of developing, by sympathy, all those general febrile symptoms which constitute intermittent fever.' (P. 639.)

M. Mongellaz seems here to have forgotten that many of those organic changes in the viscera, to which he alludes, are consequent on the long continuance of intermittent fever, and not by any means the causes of it: — but perhaps we shall be told that the gorged and hardened liver, and the ague-cake, are proofs of a pre-existing *gastro-enteritis*, from which they have arisen. The assertion, however, is altogether gratuitous and unsupported. Indeed, in a subsequent passage,

sage, the author admits distinctly, although not without a considerable portion of the verbiage of M. *Broussais*, that visceral obstructions in intermittents are the effects of the accumulation of the circulating fluids in the internal parts, during the cold stage of the disease.' (P. 781.)

Among the facts which might have been adduced in proof of the origin of intermittent fever from topical irritation, the author, had he stood on this firmer and more rational ground, might have brought forwards the well-known occurrence of regular paroxysms of ague, during the treatment of strictures of the urethra by the armed bougie. The rigors, also, followed by increased heat of skin and perspiration, which so uniformly accompany the formation of large purulent deposits within the body, have always been considered by us as very nearly akin to the intermittent paroxysm; and, in this point of view, they serve to corroborate the opinion of the local origin of that disease. The phænomena of hectic fever present a close approximation to quotidian ague; and, in that insidious form of febrile disease, the existence of topical irritation is in all cases detected sooner or later.

The views which M. Mongellaz has adopted from M. *Broussais*, of the gastro-enteritic nature of ague, have not led him to any novelties in the treatment of that disease; which, indeed, we hail as a favorable omen of his good sense and information. He has detailed at some length the most approved mode of managing cases of intermittents, although with a display of less energy of practice than we were prepared to expect from a disciple of the new French school. Instead of attacking the disease as soon as the patient is placed under his care, and any intermission of the paroxysm permits, by clearing out the *primæ viæ* and administering the cinchona, he advises that trial should be first made of the *expectant* treatment, at least in slight cases: — but cases that *promise* to be slight may *prove* obstinate; the disease itself cannot be beneficial to the constitution of the individual, as it was long ago believed; and the use of properly selected remedies will never have any injurious effects. With respect to the exhibition of the cinchona, the author has expressed himself in a judicious manner, and with a proper deference to the recorded opinions of the most experienced physicians: but of other remedies he appears to have formed by no means an adequate estimate. This is peculiarly true of the arsenical solution, with the value of which he seems to be little acquainted.

'We are of opinion,' he remarks, 'that a remedy so dangerous as this ought never to be tried where others can be procured, and where we are not urgently required to attempt the immediate removal of the intermittent fever: because, although the employment of this remedy has been attended with success, it not unfrequently produces deep ulcerations in the digestive mucous membrane, which almost always, in the end, cause the individuals to sink, some time after they have been cured of their agues; and because, independently of its immediate action on the mucous membrane of the stomach, it may be absorbed, and produce fatal effects on the organs of respiration.' (P. 721.)

The arsenical solution is not very likely, indeed, ever to be in favor with those who consider true intermittent fever as *gastro-enteritis:* but hypothesis must yield to the well-authenticated results of practice; and we doubt not that the merits of this preparation, as a remedy in periodical diseases, will remain firmly established, when the doctrine which its utility seems to subvert shall have become obsolete, or perhaps forgotten.

We cannot take leave of M. MONGELLAZ without paying to him the tribute due to laborious erudition, clear arrangement, and ingenious reasoning. If he has failed, as we think he has, to prove the truth of the doctrine which it was his object to establish, he has nevertheless performed a valuable service to the profession by presenting to them, in a condensed form, a rich collection of facts, which shew that intermittent fever is often connected with and even caused by local irritation.

ART. VI. *Traité de Cristallographie,* &c.; *i. e.* a Treatise on Crystallography; to which are subjoined the Application of the Principles of that Science to the Determination of Mineral Species, and a new Method of representing the Crystalline Forms, in Projection. By the Abbé HAÜY, Honorary Canon of the Metropolitan Church of Paris, Member of the Legion of Honor, Knight of the Order of St. Michael of Bavaria, of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Professor of Mineralogy in the King's Garden, and in the Faculty of Sciences of Paris, &c. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. With 4to. Atlas. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 2*l.* 2*s.* sewed.

BEFORE the final close of his earthly career took place, the distinguished author of these volumes was fortunately enabled to unfold, in that lucid order and clearness of style which characterize his writings, his ultimate views of physical and mineralogical science, and to secure for his memory a pure and lasting reputation. The present work, like his other treatises and memoirs, is evidently the fruit of much diligent and persevering meditation, and manifests no ordinary exercise of talent and ingenuity. Respecting the validity, however, of the claims which the crystallographic system of mineralogy can assert to be received as an infallible source of the recognition of species, we have already, more than once, ventured to express our doubts; for it does not reach those cases in which no regular forms have been observed, and it must prove of very partial application in all those in which the symmetrical forms are of rare occurrence. On former occasions, too, we have hinted at the minute and delicate trains of investigation, and manual processes, which its practical adoption pre-supposes; to say nothing of a competent acquaintance with geometry and algebra, and some degree of familiarity with a very cumbersome apparatus of notation. As a popular and commodious method of determining the names and stations of mineral substances, therefore, we cannot safely recommend it to the unscientific tyro. At the same time, it may not be denied that, in the course of thirty years of patient and sedulous study, the Abbé Haüy's perspicacious and vigorous intellect has elicited so many interesting facts and discoveries, and has thrown so much light on the natural history of the unorganized masses of matter which surround us, that a consecutive record of his labors will abundantly recompense the trouble of perusal. In the present instance, we lament our inability to convey to our readers any adequate idea of the illustrative and demonstrative portions of his favorite system, because the text would be quite unintelligible without the ample series of diagrams to which it incessantly refers; and we feel ourselves reluctantly constrained to limit our report to a summary notice of the contents of the work.

The exposition of the theory, which occupies the larger portion of the volumes, is divided into two parts, intitled the *Synthetic* and the *Analytical*. In the former, the learned author applies simple reasoning to the crystalline projections, in order to demonstrate to the eye that which the theory is meant to demonstrate to the understanding; or, in other words, he details the principles and the results of the theory: while in the latter he states the formulæ and their uses, either in obtaining the crystalline forms that have a reference to the same species, and serve to connect them with one another and with the primitive forms from which they are derived, or in developing the geometrical properties which flow from their dimensions and structure.' The first part commences with a parallel between the properties of mineral and organical bodies; which is followed by a general division of crystalline forms, and an explanation of the terms *crystal* and *crystallization*. Such of the forms as present types of the species are particularly illustrated, with an account of the goniometer and its uses; and the varieties to which the original forms are liable, the extraction of those that are regular from the nucleus, and the five descriptions of solids obtained by the mechanical division of crystals, are considered in their order. — In consequence of repeated subdivisions of the nucleus, similar crystals are obtained, to the last degree of tenuity that can be effected by human means: but the process may be continued in thought, down to those invisible particles which originally united in the liquid in which they were held in suspension to form crystals, and which are termed *integrant*. Those, again, which are supposed to enter into the composition of these integrant particles, and which can be separated from them only by chemical analysis, are denominated *principal* or *elementary*. From the three most simple forms of the polyedron,—namely, the tetraëdron, the triangular prism, and the parallelopipedon, which are those of the integrant molecules, — is deduced that almost infinite variety of crystalline forms which nature presents to our observation. *Subtractive particles, laws of decrement, natural joints*, the *law of symmetry*, &c. are likewise defined and exemplified; and the doctrines to which they refer are discussed with much patience and distinctness.

With regard to the fertility of the laws of decrement, the Abbé observes,

> 'It would appear to us unlimited, if the quantities of subtracted ranges were to extend indefinitely beyond the first terms of the series of natural numbers. In order, however, to contain it within its true boundaries, we must be guided by the theory, and by what the familiar agency of nature herself seems to dictate to us; namely, that the most ordinary decrements are at the same time the most simple; and that the most rare do not deviate from the simplicity of the former but by a term little remote: so that all which lies beyond should be reckoned impossible. Now, by confining myself to those which I mentioned at first, and supposing that they take place by 1, 2, 3, 4 ranges on the edges or other angles of a rhomboid, such as that of the carbonate of lime, I demonstrate, by the aid of a formula, that on this hypothesis, the number of possible forms is 8388604. I am far from believing that all these forms exist in nature; and a large portion of them will, doubtless, never be seen except through the medium of theory. My own collection contains nearly 160, which are all that I have observed. The Count *de Bournon* computes at 620 the number of those of which he assigns the determination in his complete treatise on the carbonate of lime and arragonite, a work which reflects honor at once on the extent and the variety of his knowlege: but, supposing that we had under our eyes all those which have been produced by crystallization, in the subterraneous caverns where it enjoys its freedom, we cannot doubt that the number indicated by the formula would be incomparably more

considerable. In order to have an accurate idea of its power, we should generalize the mode of representing it, because it is not measured by the amount of that which is, but of that which may be.

The object of the second, or analytical part, is to develope all those researches which have conduced to the establishment of mineralogy on the scientific principles of crystallography, and the solution of the proposed problems by the analytical in preference to the trigonometrical method. The properties and relations of the primitive forms are investigated in detail, and various general formulæ are introduced for the right apprehension of the theory of the octaëdron, dodecaëdron, &c. The accidents of the transposition and of the mutual penetration of crystals, with the modifications of forms originating in rapid crystallization, likewise furnish matter of interesting discussion.

Having thus exhibited the theory in all its bearings, the author proceeds, in the third part of the work, to consider the application of crystallography to the determination of mineral species. In the first section, or article, he traces our notions of mineral species to the respective qualities and quantities of their elements, and the mutual functions of the latter; assigning the preference to crystallography as a criterion of specific distinctions, the very operation of chemical analysis destroying the characteristic features of the substance submitted to trial. In the two succeeding articles, he points out what he conceives to be the advantages of founding specific characters on the results of crystallization. One of the most striking circumstances, which are stated under this head, is the apparent elective faculty with which the integrant molecules of each rhomboid are indued, to obey a particular tendency to certain laws; disregarding, as it were, other laws, though equally simple, or even more simple than those to which they manifest a partiality. — In the fourth article, the Abbé weighs the force of an objection which has been urged against his system; viz. that, in a certain number of cases, the same primitive form, and consequently the same form of the molecule, is assigned to very different mineral species. It appears on examination, however, that these are limits of other forms, and the only cases that can occur among minerals of different natures. 'I conclude,' says the author, 'with a discussion connected with the same subject, and referring to the substance known by the name of *Spathose iron*, of which the formation is still a mystery. I shew that the most probable opinion, among those which have been advanced respecting this formation, is that the figure of the calcareous rhomboid, under which the mineral in question presents itself, is the result of one of those operations that I have denominated *pseudomorphoses*, by aid of which one substance takes the place, we know not how, of a different substance, and at the same time borrows from it its form.' M. Haüy's reasoning on this hypothesis exhausts the fifth article. — The sixth and seventh treat, at great length, of the mixture of heterogeneous substances in minerals, and of the relative modes of estimating them by the chemist and the crystallographer. In the eighth, the occasional discordance between the results of chemistry and crystallography is considered. Here the Abbé remarks: 'Such is the case when two substances in which the form of the integrant molecule is absolutely the same, and moreover not a limit, differ only with respect to their component principles, as exhibited by analysis. In the same case, the physical characters come to the support of those deduced from the crystalline form; whence I conclude that, if the principle of definite proportions appears to oppose the approximation of the two substances, it is the effect of one of those anomalies of analysis of which numerous examples might be adduced.' — Article ix. illustrates the coincidence of the laws of decrement in varieties which belong to the same species, as in *pyroxene*, *amphibole*, and *tourmaline*: while the tenth discusses the indeterminable forms, and points to some curious physical properties by which they may be ascertained. We shall cite an unexpected example.

'I had embraced, in my treatise, the then generally received opinion, which is still asserted by all writers on the subject, that sal gem decrepitates, and even violently, on ignited charcoal. So prevalent was the persuasion of its identity in all respects with that which is employed for domestic purposes, and the decrepitation of which in the fire is known to every body, that, had the idea occurred to a mineralogist of subjecting it to the same action, he would have conceived it superfluous to repeat such a common experiment. This consideration did not deter me; and the following is the result to which I have been conducted by submitting to the same experiment the salt of Willicska, that of Cardona, that of Bex, that of Arabia, &c., and by employing, in succession, pieces which presented the varieties that I have designated by the names of *laminar*, *lamellar*, *granular*, and *fibrous*. The fragments of sal-gem, placed on ignited charcoal, remain on it without decrepitating, even when the fire is urged by the bellows. If we take hold of one of those fragments with small platina pincers, and expose it to the flame of a taper, it remains in like manner without explosion, and in a moment is seen to undergo an aqueous fusion, and to attach itself to the pincers in the form of a globule. During this operation, the flame exhibits slight inflations. The reason of this difference between the results presented by the two descriptions of salt is, that the salt obtained by evaporation from sea-water contains a portion of water which is present in excess, and which, reduced into vapour, occasions the explosion that has been denominated *decrepitation*. The sal gem, on the contrary, which contains only what is termed its water *of crystallization*, experiences merely simple fusion, produced by the disengagement of that water.'

Article xiv. exhibits an abridged history of crystallography during the last thirty years. Here the author may say with truth, "*quorum pars magna fui*;" and his retrospect, accordingly, is chiefly occupied with the different stages of his appropriate line of investigation.

The fourth and last part of this elaborate treatise is allotted to an explanation of the most eligible modes of representing the crystalline forms by figures in *projection*, which will be best understood by means of the plates. It differs from *perspective* in this respect, that the represented object is supposed to be seen at an infinite distance, so that the rays proceeding from its various points are parallel to one another. Figures delineated on this principle are less attractive to the eye, but convey more palpable images of their prototypes, than those which are executed according to the rules of perspective.

In the prosecution of his labors, the author has carefully and gratefully recorded the practical assistance which he has derived from one or two of the most distinguished of his pupils; and he makes such candid and honorable mention even of those who have objected to his views, that science seems to have achieved in his mind one of her fairest triumphs, by at once expanding the sentiments and moulding them to the habitual influence of courteous and kindly regards. Should the system, therefore, which he has advocated with so much ability and zeal, fail of being generally received in Europe, and of being admitted as the standard of appeal, we are not warranted to attribute the cause to any defect of talent, diligence, or dignified and amiable character.

Art. VII. *Biographie Nouvelle des Contemporains*, &c.; *i. e.* New Biography of Contemporaries, &c. By MM. ARNAUT, JAY, JOUY, NORRINS, &c. &c. Vols. VII. VIII. and IX. 8vo. Paris. 1822–3. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 14*s*. each.

FORMER portions of this work were noticed in our xcivth vol. p. 536, and xcixth, p. 513.; and we have now before us three new volumes, which contain the letters *E*, *G*, *H*, and *J*. The same liberal tone of commentary, which has several articles of the book to the hostile notice of courts of justice, continues to pervade the additional matter, but a more gentle and cautious form of expression has prudently been adopted. The editors are evidently in relation with persons friendly to popular liberty all over Europe; and they mention living eminence everywhere in that spirit of appreciation, which would be called public opinion after the ascendancy of freedom.—As before, we shall select a life (somewhat abridged) from each volume, and make a few remarks on those statements which may seem to require correction.

'*Foscolo, Ugo,* was born in the island of Zante about the year 1772. Vehement passions and severe principles, an ardent patriotism and a poetic imagination, impetuosity of character and colossal but capricious projects, soon gave him fame, enemies, and misfortunes. Neither his prose nor his poetry is of the first order. Affected conciseness, a vigor worthy of Michael Angelo, and a boldness which is frequently sublime, have snatched his writings from oblivion, but not from censure. The Italian Revolution inspired him with the hope of seeing an antique liberty resume its residence at Rome: but he was disappointed, and inconsolable at the failure of the enterprize. The pangs of a lover, which in a mind like his are almost intolerable, were superadded to the despair of the citizen; and he has related much of his personal history in the well known *Last Letters of Jacob Ortis,* an eloquent novel, in which the hero, endangered by his politics and thwarted in his affections, closes his life, like *Werter,* by suicide. *Ortis* produced much sensation in Italy, and has been extensively admired elsewhere. A commentary on the poem of Callimachus about Berenice's hair, published in 1803, created a literary controversy full of bitterness and irony.

'M. *Foscolo* next removed to France, and became intimately connected with *Ginguené,* whom he assisted to collect materials for the history of Italian literature; afterward, he went back to Milan, and published there his *Dei Sepolcri,* a poem fuller of energetic than of harmonious passages. Having had some military experience and science, he edited in 1808 the works of *Montecuculi,* which he annotated partly by the help of a Latin edition published at Vienna in 1718. He was the competitor of *Monti* for undertaking a translation of the Iliad in blank verse: but, after having published as specimens the first and second books, he was advised by the critics to desist in favor of his rival. His *Ajace,* a philosophic tragedy, is supposed to have furnished a model to Lord Byron.—Subsequently to the abdication of Napoleon, *Foscolo* became connected with the friends of liberty in Italy, who excited the jealousy of the Austrian government; and he was in consequence arrested, and either allowed or ordered to leave the country. He then went to London, where he still remains, under the dangerous protection of the alien-bill.'

A French poet addressed to Signor *Foscolo* the following elegant quatrain:

L'ARBRE EXOTIQUE.

Ton écorce n'a plus d'odeur,
Ta feuille, hélas, paraît flétrie;
Bel arbre, d'où vient ta langueur?
— *Je ne suis plus dans ma patrie.*'

The life of *Fouché*, Duke of Otranto, which is too long for our limits, casts a new light on several recent transactions, which have been much misunderstood. That of General *Foy* deserves consultation. The memoir of *Charles Fox* is given at length, but not with much tenderness to his memory.

In the article *Gourgaud* are some statements, and several insinuations, which certain public men in England would do well satisfactorily to refute. The biography of the late Duke of *Grafton* is singularly imperfect. That of the Abbé *Gregoire* is drawn up with laborious completeness, and generous equity. Earl *Grey* is strangely metamorphosed as to title, by being called '*Grey* (Lord Charles Howick) Earl of Surdy.' What this last word was intended to mean, we know not. His proper titles are Viscount Howick and Earl Grey. — The life of *Goffin* records the extraordinary and heroic escape of some miners from a submerged cavern.

As the Swedish poet *Gyllenborg* is little known in this country, which ought to receive hospitably all the emanations of Gothic genius, we shall translate the article relative to him.

'*Gyllenborg, Gustavus Frederic*, Count, a Swedish poet, born in 1729, is descended from the Count *Charles Gyllenborg*, who was ambassador to the court of London from the celebrated Charles XII. Bred to the bar, he began practice in the court of Chancery; but being of a quiet and recluse disposition, and having received a competency from his family, he gradually withdrew from active employment to devote himself to literature. Intimately acquainted with Count *Creutz*, who was successively Swedish minister at Madrid and at Paris, *Gyllenborg* was led to study the Spanish and French languages, and particularly delighted in Parisian authors. He and his friend were ultimately settled near together, and worshipped the muses in amicable competition. When Gustavus III. founded in 1780 an academy of science and literature, *Gyllenborg* was appointed president of the poetic class, and pronounced the inaugural oration. He died in 1809, at the advanced age of 80. — His first work was a translasion into Swedish of the *Art poetique* of *Boileau*: but he also versified in his own language several of the satires and some fables of *Lafontaine*. He moreover wrote elegies, and tragedies of an original cast: but his most celebrated production is an epic poem on the passage of the Baltic over the ice by the troops of Charles X. in 1658, when the King of Sweden successfully gave battle to his enemy on the straits near the island of Fionia. — *Winter and Spring*, *Leisure and Miseries*, *Odes and Fables*, *Friends and Detractors*, are titles of various poetic effusions published by him at different times; and there is also a collection of his Discourses in Prose. His language is harmonious, his style correct, and his grace attaching: but his merit consists more in finish than in fancy, in polish than in pathos.’

The life of Mr. *Halhed* is very incomplete; for no notice is taken of that credulity in prophecy which led him to give so strange a sanction to the ravings of Brothers. — In the account of Miss *Hamilton*, the lively “Letters of a Hindoo Rajah” are omitted in the list of her works: — in the article *Hardy*, the family-name of the Earl of *Charlemont* is mis-spelt *Canfield* for *Caulfield*; — and the memoir concerning *Hastings* is somewhat harsh, and drawn up in the malignant spirit of a Burkite. The exaggerations of party should not be transferred into the sentences of history. — To the Swiss physician *Herrenschwand*, who wrote on the Tape-worm, an article is allotted: but none to the *Herrenschwand* who published in London on Political Economy.*

We extract the memoir of *Hofer*, who has acquired celebrity here through the splendid poem of Mr. Charles Edwards of Cambridge; although we cannot discover on what grounds he has there been eulogized as the hero of liberty, or even of independence. His antigallicanism, and his loyalty to the Austrian emperor, are well known.

‘ *Hofer, Andrew*, was born at Passeyer in 1765. At the period of the peace of Presburg, which transferred the Tyrol from Austrian to Bavarian sway, he was settled as an innkeeper at Saint-Leonard, and carried on a considerable trade in corn, wine, and cattle, which connected him with the whole province. When the war broke out again in 1809, the inhabitants of the Tyrol, who regretted the Austrian government, rose in a mass to expel the Bavarians; and *Andrew Hofer* was the fittest man to conduct their undertaking. The independence which he enjoyed, his irreproachable life, his courage, his habitual intercourse with the mountaineers, his venerable and athletic figure, all concurred to place him at the head of the insurrection. In a little time, he was the chieftain of a numerous warlike population, who had been long accustomed to the use of the rifle, and proceeded to attack at all points the Bavarians and the few French detachments in their alliance. He took many prisoners, and drove the intruders out of the country; but he cannot be reproached with cruelty, or needless bloodshed. The Tyrol having been restored to Bavaria by the treaty of Vienna, *Hofer* laid down his arms in full confidence of an oblivion of the past: but, whether the submission of the Tyrolese was only apparent, or whether Austria secretly fomented discontent, he was, ere long, accused of exciting troubles in the upper vallies of the Inn, and in the Winchgau. French news-papers asserted that, in conjunction with two other petty chieftains, *Kolb* and *Marberg*, and in concert with the Austrian commissary *Koschmann*, he was taking steps again to raise the country. Orders were in consequence soon dispatched to arrest him, and a price was set on his head. He sought shelter in the mountains, but was at length discovered in a hut situated on the almost inaccessible summit of the Brenner; and, on the 27th of January, 1810, his dwelling being surrounded by grenadiers, he came out and said, "Frenchmen, I am *Hofer*, and in your power; kill me, and welcome; but spare my wife and child." He was taken prisoner, and sent under escort to Bolzano, where the French General *Baraguay d'Hilliers* treated him with the respect due to adversity: but new orders came for removing him to Mantua. The arrestation of this chief occasioned so great a ferment in the Tyrol, that the French found it necessary to double their posts. The news-papers of the time were full of praises of the humanity and generosity with which *Hofer* had always treated his prisoners; and it was hoped that a similar indulgence would have been shewn to him in return; but the council of war, before which he appeared, condemned him to be shot. His last moments did not belie the intrepidity of his life; and his religious resignation and noble figure, rendered the more impressive by a long black beard, struck even his enemies. Those of his countrymen who witnessed the execution carried back into the mountains a strong desire of vengeance; he was revered throughout the Tyrol as a saint and a martyr; a monument was erected to his memory on the spot where he surrendered; and his dwelling has been enlarged into an hospital, and gives asylum to sixteen poor persons. The Emperor of Austria has ennobled his son, and endowed his daughter."

---

* See our Review, New Series, vol. xxv. p. 161.

Among the lives which especially deserve consultation in this convenient work, may be placed foremost the biographies of the several living sovereigns; which are drawn up with instruction, with judgment, with civility, and without flattery. We know not where the reigning kings of the world can look into a mirror so sincere and so undistorting.

The letter *I* supplies very few lives, and must be a rare initial in French: it is separated from *J*, with which in English dictionaries it is usually intermixed.

We look forwards to the remaining volumes of this compilation with entire confidence in the continuance of a spirited impartiality of principle, and of a wide reach of intelligence; though mistakes and imperfections are unavoidable in such an extensive undertaking. — The editors of Magazines will find in these volumes a mine of profitable extracts.

Art. VIII. *Observations et Réflexions*, &c.; *i. e.* Observations and Reflections on the Causes, the Symptoms, and the Treatment of Contagion in different Diseases, particularly the Plague of the Levant, and the Yellow Fever. By M. Cl. Balme, formerly Physician to the French Army of the East, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 404. Paris and Lyons. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 7*s.* 6*d.* sewed.

The present work is another proof of the keen interest which the devastation caused by the yellow fever in Catalonia has awakened in the minds of medical men in France. The author, indeed, has distinctly stated that his anxiety to communicate his opinions, previously to the usual season for the appearance of yellow fever on the coasts of the Mediterranean, induced him to hurry the publication of his essay, before it had acquired that perfection which he might otherwise have conferred on it: but we cannot help regretting that any such consideration prevented Dr. Balme from arranging his materials, with all that method and clearness of which he is obviously capable. The first thing which strikes the reader, on turning over the pages of this volume, is the remarkable circumstance that, in a work of such extent, the writer has not deemed it necessary to divide his materials into more than three sections, or to subdivide these into subordinate chapters. In consequence of this defective method, no table of contents is given: but its place is attempted to be supplied by an ample analytical index, which, although in itself excellent, cannot communicate any information respecting the arrangement of the author's facts and the train of his reasoning.

The division of the subject of contagion which Dr. B. has adopted is very general; perhaps too much so to ensure clearness and enable him always to avoid repetition. In his first section, he has considered contagion generally, with reference not only to plague and yellow fever, but also to other diseases: in his second, he has discussed, in a general and afterward in a more particular manner, the two maladies just named; and the same subject is continued in the third section, which is closed by an account of the various modes of treatment that have been adopted in these destructive complaints. We are not able to follow the author through the details contained under each of these heads, but must content ourselves with noticing a few of the most remarkable opinions which he has endeavored to establish.

It is the belief of this physician that a certain similarity of temperament and function must exist, between the person laboring under a contagious disease and the person exposed to its morbiferous miasmata, in order to insure the infection of the latter; and he observes:

'Besides the simultaneous concurrence of a suitable degree of heat, and a state of moderate moisture in the atmosphere, it is farther necessary, in order to favor the translation, propagation, and developement of contagious effluvia, that the body which receives them shall present an analogy of temperament with the diseased body, and affinities of function and of structure in its several parts. These *relations*, more or less exact, between the infected and the exposed, give rise to what has been termed the disposition or aptitude of the latter to receive or take by contagion the disease of the former: while this aptitude exists, there will be cause to fear the receiving of the morbid affection of the diseased with whom we have a real sympathy (*consensus*); and, further, while the same aptitude remains, there will be a greater difficulty in combating the disease which has been contracted by communication.' (P. 97.)

We would ask, what community of temperament, what relation of function, can be detected between an individual whose whole system is in a state of mortal disorder from the progress of plague or of contagious yellow fever, and another individual who is apparently in perfect health? Or what similarity of function can be fancied between any one person and the lifeless body of another whose clothes are exhaling pestiferous effluvia, which will speedily induce a fatal disease in the former? Or does the author mean to assert that only those who, while in a state of health, were of similar temperament and function, are affected by the same contagion? In that case, the progress of contagious diseases would happily be very limited: but we find plague spreading among men of all habits and forms, and of all nations and countries. There are indeed exceptions to this fact; just as we find some people who are proof against the contagion of small-pox and of measles: — but such persons exhibit no peculiarities by which they may be previously distinguished, and it is only by experience of the fact that we know that they possess so fortunate an immunity. This doctrine of the author appears to have occupied much of his attention, and he has accordingly dedicated a considerable space to the production of what he regards as evidence of its truth: but none of the facts, which he has adduced, seem to us to yield any satisfactory proof of the doctrine in question; and some of them are so irrelevant as to appear almost ridiculous.

'Two married men,' we are told, 'who had been in the habit daily, for several years, of drinking one or two drams of spirits with infusion of laurel-berries, died, both paralytic, after having lost for some time the power of speech.' (P. 108.) — 'Two Dutchmen, brothers, having challenged each other to a trial of strength in smoking tobacco, were both struck with apoplexy, and died, the one two hours after the other.' (P. 110.)

In the following singular passage, it appears to be Dr. B.'s intention to illustrate still more fully his position, that a similarity of temperament and function is required to facilitate the transmission of contagion.

'Those great beings, — out of the rank, or rather whom their rank places out of the reach of the justice of men, whom Providence selects and distinguishes for a certain time, and whom it surrounds until a new order of things shall arise, with an inviolability which keeps them separate from the herd of mankind, and which by that very circumstance causes them to resemble each other, — kings, or rather the heads of nations, and still more the fathers of their people, rarely finding themselves together, but on the contrary separated and removed from all others, have hitherto been exempted from contagious diseases. But, should the taste for *Congresses* continue to animate and guide them, — should they continue to preside personally in these assemblies, and thus enliven them by their presence, — the fêtes and entertainments which they would daily give, — the same interest which they would espouse, discuss, and support, — the same natural or constrained object which they might have in view, — and, lastly, the same state of moral contention and physical fatigue which they would continually present, — all these things would concur to establish that uniformity, that approximation to permanent identity, which is and will always be necessary to cause a contagious malady to break forth among crowned heads; of whom a single diseased individual would then communicate, more or less rapidly, his morbid state to the others. We ought here to call to mind that the antient Egyptians adopted double precautions, and kept a most rigid watch over the dietetic and medical regimen of their kings and priests, whom they wished to preserve from infection; and that, in consequence, these precious persons were fed wholly on pigeons: no doubt also for the purpose of instilling into them that parental softness, and religious toleration, which alone protect potentates and their dynasties against those successive changes, to which every thing in our globe is subject.' (P. 229.)

This fanciful and curious passage, which presents the Holy Allies in a new and to themselves somewhat alarming predicament, is succeeded by an attack on their ministers; and the author concludes his remarks on this branch of his subject by declaring, on very questionable grounds, that the hypocritical, the passionate, the false, the intolerant, and the wicked, are peculiarly liable to be affected by contagion.

In correspondence with his opinion that a certain similarity of function between the diseased and the exposed is required to produce infection, M. Balme has asserted that an individual in perfect health cannot suffer from contagion. Such a doctrine appears to us altogether groundless, insusceptible of proof, and contradicted by our experience of pestilential diseases; for it has been often observed, and we had lately occasion to remark, (see Monthly Review for July, 1828,) that the first victims of plague have been the young, the vigorous and the robust. We know not, indeed, any proof of injured health which can be uniformly adduced in such cases, unless the mere fact of the individuals having received the contagion can be regarded as such.

The distinguished Dr. Fordyce, as our professional readers know, illustrated the nature and progress of continued fever by the phenomena of an intermittent; and Dr. BALME, in imitation of him, has suggested that a pestilential fever is composed of several small febrile diseases: or, to express it otherwise, that a pestilential fever consists of a series of successive relapses, produced by the application of new portions of morbiferous matter, proceeding either from the bodies of other patients or from that of the individual himself. The known phænomena of contagious diseases, however, are completely at variance with any such opinion: they do not consist of successive and similar paroxysms, like ague, but have their stages and run their course. Were the doctrine of the present author correct, it is not easy to see in what way such fevers could ever terminate, unless by death; for we know that even those, who have had small-pox and plague, are not always therefore protected against a second attack of the disease.

It seems to be believed by this author, that the virulence of contagion is heightened by transmission from one individual to another; at least, so we understand the expression "that the progress of contagion will be proportioned to the degree of animalization which the contagious miasmata have undergone." (P. 151.) Were this opinion well founded, we should have no end of contagious diseases: they would gain strength as they proceeded, and whole countries would of necessity be speedily depopulated: but the fact is that such diseases are always, after a time, observed to decline, and the last cases of plague are often remarkably mild.

The contagious miasmata of pestilential diseases are supposed by Dr. BALME to find a ready admittance into the system through the pores of the skin; and in his theoretical reasonings throughout the volume before us, he has made frequent reference to the functions of cutaneous absorption and transpiration:—but he is disposed to deny altogether the entrance of contagious effluvia through the membrane of the air-passages; (p. 211.) and his reasons for so doing are that the lungs of those who have died of plague do not exhibit any morbid alterations, and that the inflammatory type is rare in pest cases. Even allowing these assertions to be correct, which we do not admit, the same arguments may be urged against the cutaneous absorption of contagious miasmata; for we believe that the skin, in such cases, is seldom primarily affected. When we had lately occasion to consider the subject of plague, (see our Number for July, 1823,) we stated the great superiority of the absorbing power of the bronchial membrane over that of the skin, and grounded on this circumstance our belief that contagious miasmata entered the animal frame through the lungs, with at least as much facility as through the pores of the skin.

We are happy to observe, amid the conflicting doctrines which still divide the medical public, that Dr. BALME is ready to admit the variable nature of yellow fever, sometimes arising simply from local causes, and at others originating from contagion. We cannot, however, in the present state of our knowlege, concur with him in extending the same doctrine to plague: although it is conceivable that the advancement of medical science may, hereafter, shew that plague is capable of originating now, as it did on its first appearance, independently of all contagion.

Of the means of cure employed in contagious diseases, M. BALME has formed a very low estimate, and he seems even disposed to deny that they possess any efficacy. It is with pain that we are obliged to acknowlege that the efforts of our art have hitherto proved but two inefficient, in the treatment of plague: but we are sanguine enough to hope that the fearless intrepidity of those who have braved the dangers of infection, and of others who will yet do so, in search of knowlege, and for the purpose of ministering to the distresses of humanity, will at length be rewarded by the discovery of a successful mode of treating that destructive disease.

Although this work exhibits many instances of fanciful speculation and vague reasoning, it presents evidence of an ingenious and inquiring mind, and contains much important information on the subject of contagion. We trust that, should a second edition of it be required, the author will diligently employ himself in arranging his materials in a more correct and perspicuous order; and in reviewing those unsupported conjectures on which we have felt it our duty to animadvert, since it must be confessed that they essentially detract from the scientific character of his treatise.

ART. IX. *Théorie des Cortès*, &c.; *i. e.* The Theory of the Cortes; or, a History of the Great National Assemblies of the Kingdoms of Castile and Leon, from the Origin of the Spanish Monarchy to the present Time: with some Observations on the existing Constitution of Spain. By Don FRANCIS MARTINEZ MARINA, Canon of the Church of St. Isidore at Madrid, Confessor to King Ferdinand VII.; and Deputy to the Cortes. Translated from the Spanish by *P. F. L. Fleury*. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 18*s*.

At a time when the new constitution of Spain, purchased with the blood of so many of the best and bravest of her citizens, has been denounced as dangerous to the social order of the rest of Europe, and when in support of the assertion the most powerful of her neighbours has carried the sword into her provinces, it becomes expedient to examine into the right of the Spanish nation to frame the constitution which has given so much offence to the sovereigns of Europe. To any man of a healthy and unprejudiced mind, indeed, the question needs only to be stated to afford its own answer: for he will immediately acknowlege the right of the Spanish nation to introduce all such reforms and changes as are best calculated to secure the welfare of the people; and of the necessity and propriety of such changes he will pronounce the Spaniards themselves to be the only competent judges. Some men, however, possess minds so prejudiced, and perceptions so obtuse, as to discover in the Spanish revolution *only* a dangerous resistance to long-established authority, and an example pernicious to the tranquillity of the other nations of Europe. In the judgment of these individuals, despotism is sanctioned by its antiquity; and to them all authority, be it rightful or not, is sacred. When the Spanish people, therefore, ventured to assail the edifice of corruption which had been raised by the exertions of two tyrannical dynasties, they naturally incurred the suspicion of these lovers of antient evils, who beheld with pain the subversion of so venerable a structure. It may, perhaps, produce a change in the sentiments of these persons, to find how democratical the constitution of Spain was in its origin, and for centuries afterward; to examine the various bulwarks with which, in early times, the Spaniards protected their liberties; and to trace the gradual encroachments of power, terminating in that thorough despotism from which the citizens of Spain have so lately freed themselves.

If it can be made to appear to these worshippers of antient precedent, that the government of Spain was primarily and essentially a limited monarchy; — if it can be shewn to them that, so far from having any claim to his newly assumed title of "the absolute king," the Spanish monarch in early times was even more confined in many of his prerogatives than our own sovereign;—if it can be proved that, for several centuries, the Cortes of Castille exercised in the fullest manner almost all the important privileges with which the representatives of the people are at the present day invested;—then, convinced of these facts, the advocates of the late established order of things may, perhaps, be induced to admit that the cause of Spanish freedom may be argued on their favorite ground of precedent and authority. In none of the nations of Europe has the spirit of democracy, or rather of free government, been so frequently and so vigorously asserted as in Spain. It pervaded all her institutions, from the highest to the humblest, and was intimately mingled with the character of every rank of her citizens. So powerful indeed was this spirit, that not even three centuries of successful despotism have been sufficient to eradicate it from the hearts of the people. Oppressed by the monarchs, who had sworn to protect them; misled by the priesthood, who were bound to be their guides; corrupted and enslaved by the nobility, who ought to have been their example; the people of Spain have yet been unable to forget that they once possessed a free and happy constitution. The extent of the liberties and privileges, which they formerly enjoyed, is fully explained in the valuable work before us; of the contents of which we shall endeavor to give as full an outline as our limits will allow.

The author has been long celebrated for his profound knowlege of the constitutional antiquities of his country, and his ardent attachment to its liberties. In the reign of Charles IV., a project was entertained for reprinting the laws attributed to Alfonso the Wise, and Don F. MARINA was appointed to prepare a preface. This duty he performed, too honestly, as it would appear; for the preface was not used, and the design was ultimately abandoned: but the failure did not induce him to discontinue his honorable and useful studies; and in the year 1808, on the expulsion of the French from Madrid, he published his "*Ensayo Historico-critico sobre la antigua Legislacion y Principales Cuerpos Legales de los Reynos de Leon y Castilla*," a work displaying great research, and an intimate acquaintance with the legal antiquities of Spain. The changes, which were on the eve of being accomplished in the Peninsula, naturally directed his attention to the history of the great representative assemblies of his country; and accordingly, soon after the establishment of the Constitution of 1812, he produced his '*Theory of the Cortes*,' which was published at Madrid in 1813, in three volumes quarto, the last being occupied by an appendix containing extracts from the proceedings of the Cortes, and other documents tending to illustrate the whole.

Although the records of the proceedings of the Cortes are dispersed in various monasteries, (for the meetings of that body, like those of our own parliament in early times, were not held in one certain place,) they contain ample materials for a complete constitutional history of Spain. In the reign of Ferdinand VI., a commission was appointed to examine the archives of the cathedral churches, and other places in which these records were preserved; and, in consequence of the researches then made, an important collection of national antiquities was formed and deposited at Madrid.* From these and other authentic documents, Don F. MARINA has, with exemplary industry and perseverance, succeeded in framing the present 'Theory of the Cortes:' in which, by his copious references to the original records, and by his able historical illustrations, he has rendered the greatest service not only to his own countrymen, but to every one who regards the history of government and the science of legislation. So completely has he superseded all former writers on the same subject, or rather so ably has he supplied the want of information which existed previously to the appearance of his works, that a very acute and diligent historian of our own country, who seldom neglects to accumulate authorities for his positions, has cited scarcely any other author than MARINA, in the sketch which he has given of Spanish government and legislation during the middle ages.† — It is acknowleged that very considerable liberties have been taken by the translator, according to the French custom, in omitting various passages, and curtailing superabundant details and *minutiæ*.

The origin of representative assemblies in Spain is traced back by the author to the Goths; who, like all their northern brethren, established, wherever they fixed themselves, some modification of a democratic government. This system prevailed in Spain until the death of the famous Roderick the last of the Goths; and these assemblies of the people held the power of enacting laws, both civil and ecclesiastical. The clergy as well as the laity sat in these councils, but to the churchmen the privilege of judging ecclesiastical matters peculiarly belonged *; the lay-representatives on these occasions being mere spectators. In affairs of state, however, the clergy had also a voice. To these assemblies the kings, who were then elective, were altogether subordinate: by their decrees the royal duties and obligations were defined; and to them it belonged to prevent or permit any despotic measures in the monarch. As the clergy were at that time the best-informed part of the community, they constituted a great proportion of the assembly; and by the present constitution they are not excluded from the office of representatives. — On the propriety of this part of the new system, Signor Marina, an ecclesiastic himself, has made some sensible observations; and he thinks that, unless the abuses of the Spanish church be reformed, the admission of the clergy into the Cortes is a question of very doubtful policy.

---

* We understand that a valuable portion of the constitutional archives of Spain, transcribed from the originals, exists in the library of an English nobleman distinguished by his attachment to Spanish literature.

† Hallam's View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages, vol. ii.

On the destruction of the empire of the Goths, and the establishment of the Moors in Spain, the latter adopted in a great degree the system of government which had existed under the vanquished people; and from this period to the termination of the thirteenth century we meet with frequent mention of the Cortes, or States-general. The assembling of these bodies did not depend merely on the will of the prince.

The monarchy of Castile was originally elective; and during the empire of the Goths, on the death of the king the States-general were called together for the purpose of choosing the new sovereign. Until the commencement of the twelfth century, this elective system was preserved: but the designation of a successor in the life-time of the reigning prince at last formed an innovation, and led the way to the establishment of an hereditary monarchy: though the Cortes still continued to exert their power by a solemn recognition of the successor, during the life of the reigning sovereign. On the death of the king, it was the privilege of the representatives again to assemble, and to proceed in the earlier times to elect a new sovereign, and afterward to confirm the title of the prince whose claims had been recognized under the reign of his predecessor. On this occasion the deputies did homage to their new monarch. — At the commencement of the eighteenth century, a great alteration was introduced in this ceremony; and, on the accession of Philip V., grandson of Louis XIV., scarcely any of the antient forms were observed.

The powers of the Cortes, however, were not confined to

---

* This regulation bears a strong similitude to the early times of our own law, when the bishop and the earl used to sit together in the county-court.

the mere election of the sovereign; for in them was vested the right of interpreting and modelling the laws relative to the succession to the throne. Gradually, and by an usurped authority, the kings of Castile claimed the power of disposing of the crown: from the time of Alfonso VIII., this assumption was generally admitted, though in case of a disputed succession the Cortes still exercised their antient jurisdiction; and, on the death of Alfonso X., they even disregarded his will and proclaimed Don Sancho king, who had been recognized by them as the heir to the throne during the life of Alfonso. The succession of Henry of Transtamare proceeded in the same manner from an act of the Cortes. From these and other strong instances, the author proves that the representatives of the people never abandoned their inherent right of watching over the royal succession, although many sovereigns were suffered undisputedly to nominate their heirs.

Before we proceed farther to trace the changes of the Spanish monarchy, we would pause for a short time to remark the singular coincidence between the antient constitution of Spain and our own early system. There is no doubt that, before the Conquest, the crown of England was elective, and that the regal dignity was conferred by the assembly of the clergy and elders of the nation; "*Legitimè, reges à sacerdotibus et senioribus populi elegantur* [*];" and Alfred declares, in his will, that he had received the crown as that which "*Deus et principes cum senioribus populi misericorditer et benignè dederunt.*" [†] Many other authorities to the same effect are collected by Mr. Arthur Taylor, in his learned treatise on "The Glory of Regality." Even the practice of recognizing the presumptive heir to the throne, in the life-time of the reigning sovereign, appears to have been customary in this kingdom. The Saxon chronicle informs us that, in the year 785, Egferth was "hallowed to king" by his father Offa, king of Mercia; and so Alfred the Great was anointed during the life of his father, though he had three elder brothers, before whom, it is conjectured by Mr. Turner [‡], he was intended to be preferred by his father. The intelligent antiquary, however, to whose work on the coronation of our kings we have just adverted, does not appear to have been aware that the ceremony of recognizing the heir to the crown was ever practised in any of the Gothic constitutions; and he therefore seems to consider the instances which he cites as anomalous. The consent and approbation of the people on the accession of a new sovereign, are still to be traced in the acts of recognition. The great principle, to be deduced from all the authorities on this head, was exemplified in the Revolution of 1688; and the testaments of Henry VIII. and Edward VI. shew that the abuses, which had crept into the Spanish monarchy, likewise found their way into our own constitution.

---

[*] Spelman, Conc. i. 296. [†] *Asser de rebus gestis Alfredi*, 73.
[‡] History of the Anglo-Saxons, i. 185.

Having demonstrated the superior power of the Cortes in matters affecting the crown, and having traced the origin and decline of that power until it was only a mere name under Philip V., the author, in his third book, proceeds to explain the mode in which the people or the commons first became a constituent part of the great national assembly. This event took place in Spain earlier than in England, or France, or Germany; for in the year 1188 the deputies from the municipal councils, or corporations, formed a part of the Cortes of Leon. These municipal councils were a sort of democratic assemblies, by which the judicial functionaries of the respective provinces were elected, and the members of which acted as conservators of the peace within their districts. They were organized as early as the eleventh century, and were encouraged by the sovereigns, as forming a barrier against the overwhelming power of the nobility and priesthood. In later times, this excellent institution has been much abused: but, in the new constitution of Spain, many important regulations respecting it are laid down. When noticing the corruptions by which these municipal assemblies have been rendered ineffective, the author takes the opportunity of animadverting at length on the laxity of morals and the want of education among his countrymen; and his observations on the conduct which ought to be pursued by the priesthood at this conjuncture are very sensible, though from his statements we can scarcely expect it from them. 'It is on the ministers of the sanctuary,' he observes, 'that it is more especially incumbent to forward the reform of the public manners, by a reformation in the first instance of their own lives.' To remedy these pressing evils, he proposes, 1. that the clergy should be deprived of their over-grown possessions, tithes be abolished, and stipends assigned in lieu of them; 2. that the number of public officers, especially judicial, should be retrenched; 3. that an effort should be made to counteract, as far as it may be practicable, the useless accumulation of wealth. — The nobility likewise fall under the author's severe animadversion, and he even attacks the principle of aristocracy in general. Some persons, according to him, are much disappointed that, by *the present constitution of Spain,* all such factitious distinctions have not been abolished; and that such a manifest contradiction between the spirit and the letter of the new code should be suffered to exist. We quite agree with him, however, that (waiving the question of the justice and expediency of such an enactment) the legislators of Spain have acted with most politic foresight in not attempting so hazardous a measure.

Book iv. contains a very interesting disquisition on the judicial power, and on the influence of the nation in the administration of justice. In the earlier periods of the Spanish monarchy, the ordinary magistrates were appointed by the people at large through the intervention of their municipal representatives; but, in the thirteenth century, the monarch succeeded in nominating judges of his own selection, afterward known by the name of Corregidors and Superior Alcaldes. The nation, indignant at this violation of their rights, petitioned the crown to be allowed their antient privilege; and their request was granted by Sancho IV. in the Cortes of Palencia, in the year 1286. By subsequent monarchs, however, fresh innovations were made on this popular bulwark; until at length the choice of the judge rested with the crown under certain restrictions. Personal liberty, the grand test of a free constitution, was jealously guarded in these early times; and in 1299 the representatives of the people demanded from their sovereign, Ferdinand IV., that he would forbid all domiciliary visits: — a demand to which that prince acceded.

The popular tribunals, as they may be termed, were entirely distinct from the superior or king's courts, in which the royal alcaldes presided: but the citation of individuals amenable to the former jurisdiction before the royal tribunals afforded ample matter of complaint. The offences which properly came under the cognizance of the superior courts were treason, forgery, coining, and, in short, all causes in which the interests of the crown were concerned: but to the royal courts an ultimate appeal might be made. On the mode in which justice was administered by the superior tribunals, Don F. Marina enters into copious details; and he likewise explains at large the nature of the court styled the King's Audience.

As the Cortes possessed the right of inquiring into the mode in which justice was administered in these courts, many salutary reforms took place in consequence of their interference; and the manner in which the amendments were introduced was by petition to the king, as in the earlier times of our own parliament. Several addresses of this kind are cited in the volumes before us. The vigilance of the deputies extended even to the conduct of the inferior municipal authorities; and

they

tion of 1812, which excluded the spiritual and temporal aristocracy from a place in the legislature, to imagine a similar form of government in antient times.* During the first seven centuries of the Spanish monarchy, the people were certainly not represented in the great council, which was composed of the dignified ecclesiastics and powerful nobles, as we have already stated; and it was only at the end of the twelfth century that the deputies of the towns were admitted into the national assemblies: from which period, the attendance of the nobles and ecclesiastics became much more infrequent and irregular. In the Cortes of 1505 the clergy were not convoked; and in 1515, 1518, and 1520, the Commons alone were summoned. — It must be admitted that great doubt exists as to the constitution of the national assemblies of Castile at this period; and, as far as the analogy of our own parliament extends, it is decidedly against the present author's theory. *Jovellanos*, a name respected by every one who regards either patriotism or literature, contends that the two estates of the clergy and the nobles were constituent and essential parts of the Cortes, but this opinion is combated by Signor Marina with great strength; and the idea of *Jovellanos* that the assemblies were divided into two separate bodies, consisting of the privileged orders and the popular representatives, certainly appears to be founded in error.

Nothing is so conducive to the purity of a representative government as the integrity of elections. In the earlier stages of the Spanish history, the deputies appear to have been elected by the respectable householders, or heads of families: but, in the reign of Alfonso XI., the franchise was confined to the municipal council of each particular town. All undue influence, especially on the part of the court, was strictly prohibited; notwithstanding which the crown frequently endeavored to govern the elections by corruption; and under Charles V. and Philip II. freedom of election became a mere name. It is evident that a mode of election, which vested the franchise merely in the corporations of a few towns, was little fitted to satisfy the Spaniards of the present day; and accordingly, by the new Constitution, every citizen exercises at least an indirect influence in the choice of the national representatives. We regret that we cannot notice all the observations of the author on many important points relating to the present representative-system of Spain: but we shall remark that he objects to the laws by which the seats of the deputies are secured to them for two years certain, and the members of each Cortes declared ineligible to the next. When the Cortes were elected by the municipal bodies, it was usual for the latter to give specific instructions to their deputies with regard to their more important duties; a custom which the author maintains at considerable length to be essential to the preservation of the national liberties. His arguments on this head, however, appear to be pushed to an extreme.

---

* Hallam's View of the Middle Ages, ii. 34.

The periods of convoking the Cortes, and the duration of their sittings, form the subject of Vol. II. book ii. Under the antient constitution, it rested entirely with the monarch to summon the national assembly according to the exigency of public affairs: but this exorbitant privilege, as the author justly observes, was destructive to the liberties of the people. A sovereign prince, as our own history will inform us, is but too well inclined to reign without the intervention of popular checks; and accordingly, in every nation where liberty is firmly established, some period is fixed beyond which it is not in the power of the ruler to defer the meeting of the national representatives. Instead of our septennial parliaments, the Spanish Cortes are by the constitution of 1812 declared to be biennial: but their sessions during each year are limited to three or four months; a period, according to Signor M., very insufficient for the discharge of the highly important duties confided to them. With regard to the right existing in the Cortes of assembling *ex motu suo*, and without being convoked, on any extraordinary emergency, his arguments are just and solid: but the necessity of exerting so extraordinary a power must of course be left to the good sense of the nation. Our own Revolution in 1688 is an illustration of the principle maintained by the author, who blames his countrymen for not meeting in the Cortes when Ferdinand was carried away in 1808. It should be observed that several instances occur in Spanish history, in which the Cortes thus voluntarily assembled.

After having examined the right of the people, by the intervention of their deputies, not only to regulate the succession to the crown but even in an extreme case to displace the reigning monarch, and having touched on the power of voluntary resignation, Signor MARINA proceeds to notice certain important privileges which the Cortes formerly enjoyed. To their consideration the marriage of the sovereign, and the treaties with foreign powers in virtue of such alliance, were commonly submitted: but, about the end of the fifteenth century, the increasing despotism of the monarchs deprived the representatives of the people of this important privilege. The administration of law, the appointment of the various ranks of magistrates, and the conduct of judicial officers, all came within the cognizance of the Cortes: but this subject, as we have mentioned above, is also treated by the author in the earlier part of his work. Another of the valuable privileges possessed by the Cortes was the right of examining and sanctioning the appointment of a regent, in case of the infancy or incapacity of the sovereign.

As the third and fourth books of the second volume are not of an equally interesting nature with the remainder of the work, we shall notice their contents in a summary manner. The third book treats of the protection granted by law to the deputies during their sittings, — the ceremonies observed, — the order of discussion and voting, — the right of petition, — and the mode of enforcing their decrees. In the fourth, the question of admitting the king's ministers to assist at the sittings of the Cortes, and the propriety of the royal family being present, are discussed. We hasten over these details to the examination of the right of imposing taxes, which fills the greater part of the fifth book; the first portion being occupied with an exposition of the privileges inherent in the Cortes, of advising the monarch on all questions of peace and war.

The most effectual check against the encroachments of despotic power is to withhold the means of corruption; and, in every limited monarchy, it is 'absolutely essential' to the preservation of the national liberties that the right of taxation should reside in the representatives of the people. Although this was not precisely the case in the earlier stages of the Spanish monarchy, yet we find that the great national assembly was accustomed to interfere whenever the prince attempted to aggrieve his subjects by unjust exactions; and at length, in the reign of Alfonso XI., a law was passed, declaring that no extraordinary tax, either special or general, should be levied unless with the previous consent of the Cortes:— a law which was religiously observed by many of the succeeding sovereigns of Castile. In several instances, however, this salutary enactment was violated, particularly by Philip II.; on which occasion the Cortes of Cordova remonstrated with the monarch, though ineffectually: for, from that period, contributions were levied on the people at the will of the crown. In addition to the exclusive right of taxing the people, the Cortes exercised a control over the mode of raising the imposts, and the privilege of examining into the application of the revenue when collected. Thus, when a proposition to raise a supply of money was made by the king to the Cortes of Guadalaxara in 1390, the representatives of the nation declared that it would be contrary to the common weal to vote new taxes, before they had been apprised of the mode in which the supplies formerly granted had been disbursed; and they therefore petitioned the king that he would lay before them an account of the manner in which such large sums of money had been expended. If the Cortes granted the supplies, it was in their power to annex such conditions to them as they conceived reasonable; in the same manner as our own House of Commons were accustomed to tack together their grievances and their grants. Many instances are to be found, in Spanish history, of the representatives refusing to advance the sums demanded from them by the sovereign; and even the private expences of the king's household were subject to the control of the Cortes, who guarded the nation with great jealousy against the prodigality of their monarchs.

On account of the bold and able manner in which Don F. Marina has stated one of the most important questions in politics, we are induced to give some quotations at length.

'Notwithstanding all the efforts which, at various periods, the partizans of error have made to fascinate the eyes of the people, the great principle will still be acknowleged that men formed themselves into political societies, and rendered themselves subject to the laws, only for their own convenience and preservation; and that it was solely for its own advantage and prosperity that the society at large, in which originally resides the sovereign authority, being unable to conduct the government itself, has confided the exercise of that power to one or more individuals. From this intelligible principle, the following axioms necessarily flow: — that political authority was established purely for the benefit of the governed; — that it does not change its nature by passing from the hands of the nation into those of the prince or monarch; — that it is the duty of every supreme magistrate to be intimately convinced of this great truth, that power is confided to him only for the good of the state and the felicity of the people; and that, consequently, not only is he forbidden to abuse that authority by exerting it in order to accomplish his own purposes, and to serve his own individual interests, but it is his duty to apply all his powers, faculties, and efforts, in forwarding the glory of the empire, and the happiness of the people committed to his charge.

'If, then, the prince unite in his own person the entire majesty and rights of the national body which he represents, and if he be invested with the supreme authority and power of ordering whatever he may deem essential to the public good, he ought also, like a wise and tender father, or a faithful and provident steward, to sacrifice his existence to the welfare of his people, and to practise those virtues which befit the supreme head of the nation.

'But

'But these duties, which are common to all monarchs, over whatsoever kind of political society they may preside, are to be observed with greater rigor in moderate and constitutional governments, and are more indispensable to those princes on whom their subjects have conferred only a limited and conditional authority. This is the case in Spain, where the people, in confiding to the king the sovereign power, far from divesting themselves of or renouncing their natural authority, have in fact reserved the greater portion of it; and where they have set bounds to the royal prerogative, by establishing a constitution which limits with precision the extent of the monarch's sway, regulates the form in which it is to be exercised, and constitutes him the guardian and administrator of the fundamental laws, with a provision that, if his acts trespass out of the prescribed limits, they shall be considered as an abuse of the powers entrusted to him. As a preventive of possible evil, the sovereign was never allowed by the nation to ascend the throne unless he had previously sworn to execute the laws, to maintain them in all their vigor, and to give in his own person an example of obedience to them, in order that they might be respected by the citizens as the basis of public tranquillity and happiness, the firm support of the sovereign power, and the impregnable bulwark of popular liberty.

'It follows that, if the prince, despising these most sacred compacts, should break through the boundaries prescribed to him by the nation, trample the laws of it under foot, audaciously violate the fundamental regulations of the kingdom, and shamelessly attack the constitution of the state, the rights of the people, and the national liberties; — if, in short, abandoning every thought of justice and every sentiment of humanity, he should employ his power in the destruction of the commonwealth; — then it cannot be doubted that at the same moment he forfeits his dignity, his title, and his rights. The ties which bound the people to their chief are broken by that chief himself; they recover their liberty and independence; they resume their sovereign power; they are no longer restricted by the obedience which they have promised; they may defend themselves against their ruler as against a common enemy; and they may withdraw themselves altogether from his authority. Would to God that princes had ever had by their side counsellors zealous and wise and firm enough to remind them continually of these important truths!'

Signor MARINA next proceeds to illustrate these principles by various references to Spanish history. It should be mentioned that, while he pushes the democratical principle thus far, he contends for the absolute inviolability of the sovereign's person. The remainder of the volume is occupied with a disquisition on the *Hermandads*, the juntas or general confederations of Castile; an institution which is little understood, but which appears to have been a kind of Extraordinary Cortes. We regret that we cannot follow him step by step through this inquiry, with which his valuable work concludes.

We commit this article to the press in the middle of September. Heaven only knows what another month may produce with regard to the destinies of Spain: but, as it is always good and never useless to proclaim *Truth* and to disseminate *Wisdom*, the appearance of the publication before us cannot be without its effect; and sooner or later, we are persuaded, *Truth*, *Wisdom*, and *Liberty*, must prevail.

ART. XI. *Histoire Philosophique des Empereurs*, &c.; i. e. A Philosophical History of the Emperors, from Cæsar to Constantine. By M. TOULOTTE.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix, p.* 528.]

RESUMING the narrative of this truly philosophical historian where we last dropped it, in a consideration of the character of Augustus, — the first who succeeded in fixing the yoke of imperial despotism on the necks of the Romans, — we meet with a masterly sketch of the masked policy of that artful prince, and its gradual influence in subverting the remains of the antient spirit, not less than the customs and institutions of republican Rome. Presenting as he did such a fearful union of violence and hypocrisy, so fatal to the liberties and final prosperity of his country, we are not surprized at the indignant tone of invective, — though too indignant to be strictly historical, — in which M. TOULOTTE attempts to hold up his character to the opprobrium of the age. While we admit that the author's motive is here truly laudable, it certainly represents his hero, as we before observed, in somewhat blacker colors than the representations of contemporary and succeeding writers would lead us to regard as real; while we are aware that they were obliged to maintain a degree of precaution from which, at this period, an author is wholly free. M. TOULOTTE may therefore be nearer the truth than we were at first inclined to suppose; as, in a philosophical sense, we ought rather to appreciate the *real* character of rulers by an attention to facts and the effects of their government, than by such qualities as are usually attributed to them by writers of their own or of the immediately succeeding age. We could wish our readers to estimate this historian's opinions, as we have done, by such a criterion; when they will find their labor fully repaid by the discovery of important truth and force of reasoning, applied to the social and political as well as to the literary and philosophical relations of the Romans. Let them contemplate the following portrait:

'The judgment of Augustus, which he had long ineffectually employed to surmount his natural pusillanimity, appeared to be at length successful in converting a monster into a gracious prince, whose justice and moderation became the topic of numerous admiring writers. From that moment he appeared as if *separated from himself* by a river of blood, on one bank of which he had left Octavius, to exhibit on the other Augustus atoning for faults, and drawing a veil of oblivion over the crimes of the first years of his usurpation.

'The head of a government is never at a loss to soften the sense of the sufferings which it has produced. This Augustus knew:—he therefore did some little good, and the surprize and gratitude of the Romans were beyond bounds. The barbarities of the triumvir were forgotten: but the silence of the people on that subject was not enough for him who was to prove that peace may become infinitely more dangerous than war: for him who had inspired such a thirst of blood, by savage proscriptions, that he was compelled to revive the *Lex Pompeia* against children who deprived their parents of life: a crime on which Solon himself is silent, but which soon became an object of *regal* legislation, from which the virtues of republican citizens had long preserved Rome:—for him, in fine, who had sported with a million lives of his countrymen, in a state where the laws of a Numa had characterized the assassination of a single citizen as a parricide, to be visited with the penalty of death on the criminal.' (Vol. i. p. 198.)

From the spirit in which the entire work is written, we have little reason to be surprized when M. Toulotte thus indignantly expresses his feelings on the prostration of antient Rome, and on the opening career of the emperors: more especially of Augustus, whose hypocritical and selfish dominion so well paved the way for the future crimes of his successors, and the degradation and downfall of the empire. On the other hand, the author holds up the Gracchi to the veneration of ages, deplores their early loss, and from that period seems to trace the declining grandeur and virtues of the Romans.

The origin of the prevailing anarchy and crimes of Rome is attributed by M. Toulotte, with some degree of justice, to the pride and vices of the patricians, and to the rest of the optimates of the state having inconsiderately ranged themselves on the side of the consuls; 'thus smoothing the road to farther encroachments on the part of the most crafty and ambitious of their own order, the dictators, the Cæsars, and the emperors who shortly followed; and forging those patricidal arms that broke the table of the laws, and murdered with impunity the grandsons of the great Scipio, the tribunes of the people:—teaching that people that there are no ties *with which* nature and society have yet bound mankind, that man's own audacious will can be brought to respect.' The bitterness of his feelings is still more strikingly manifested, when he comes to apply these reasonings on the causes of Roman degeneracy and misgovernment to more modern instances of regal injustice and oppression.

'The Romans, always so terrible to the nations which they undertook to subdue, and equally devoid of pity in the amphitheatre and in the field, still had never been guilty of inhumanity and harshness towards their fellow-citizens before the murder of Tiberius Gracchus. But when the usurpations and atrocities of the patricians appeared to have stifled in their bosoms the sentiments of common justice and compassion, they did not even then treat the subjects of other nations in the manner in which our own fellow-citizens have been treated, at the distance of so many ages, and under the *fraternity* of evangelical law, by a government which would perhaps be less detested were it content with being merely cruel.' (P. 202.)

This observation, which is intended to apply not less to the English than to other governments, is followed up by a repetition of the charge before brought by M. *Dupin* against the ministry of this country, in his work on the Marine, &c., for its maltreatment and neglect of French prisoners of war: — a sweeping assertion, rather indirectly and unaptly introduced in the progress of a great historical narration; and for the refutation of which, in many points at least, we had rather refer to the replies contained in our reviews of M. *Dupin's* late publications, (see our Appendix to vols. xcii. and xcv.) than enter here into a fresh discussion of it, so irrelevant as it is to the present purpose.

In his indiscriminate dislike of regal sway, and of the encroachments of arbitrary power, this historian seems unable to prevail on himself to view the character of Augustus in the light of a sincere promoter of literature, and the patron of our great Roman poets: — whose strains, we are to believe, were only applied, like those of the syrens, to charm the Romans to their destruction, or at least to soothe them into the sleep of oppression. He considers the same hypocritical and interested motives to have influenced the Emperor here, which actuated him in the whole of his political relations; and the terms on which he dispenses his favors are represented as both humiliating and revolting. Virgil became the apologist of power, celebrating the spoil of Grecian cities and villages; and the subverter of liberty is uniformly the hero of the Horatian lyrics. Roman art, also, so far from being really indebted to him, produced none of those rare and noble monuments that could at all compete with the glory of Grecian sculpture; a fact which the author partly attributes to the very possession of those superb collections of statues, which Augustus caused to be transported from the temples and altars of Athens, for exhibition in Rome. Such a display of consummate excellence may, indeed, have had the effect of discouraging native genius and originality; — for their superiority over Roman art is so remarkable, that M. *de Caylus*, in his observations on the heads of Hercules which ornament several vases, uniformly considers those to be of Grecian origin of which the workmanship appears the most perfect, and does not hesitate to class among the remains of Roman antiquities all such as betray mediocrity of form and execution. M. Toulotte says that we ought not to be surprized at this inferiority: for, in order to obtain the good graces of Augustus, 'it was requisite to excel rather in the destructive art of enslaving the world, than in that nobler remunerating faculty which, in giving life to marble, immortalizes the recollections of heroism and of virtue.' — In reflecting by what insensible degrees this prince accustomed the Romans to the imperial yoke, he concludes, in allusion to the more modern system of tyrants, 'that the caution which he displayed in this criminal enterprize has led most modern despots to the belief, that a final abolition of the rights of the people is as necessary to the very existence of supreme power, as the destruction of the weaker animals is to the subsistence of the more carnivorous rangers of the field.'

Tracing a similarity, in some points, between the policy of Augustus and that of Louis XIV., the writer exposes the political iniquity of attempting to perpetuate slavery, through the means of court-historiographers and poets; 'whose express object is to bury the age in darkness, — to disseminate falsehoods instead of truth, — and to play the part of spies and informers of a higher order, whose chief office is to bring intelligence to their employers of the evils which they produce.' It is evident that the author means to apply these remarks, with peculiar force, to existing times and institutions, — though under the mask of a Macchiavelian satire, which he does not *always* venture to lay aside. 'In both of these potentates,' he observes, 'the same designs are apparent, and are pursued by similar means: both sought to cramp the faculties of the *individual* and of the *social* frame;' and he does not seem inclined to give either of them much credit, for having produced those national and literary glories which decorated their respective ages.

'*The* splendor by which they were surrounded is to be attributed to the effects of preceding times, which were more favorable

able to human intellect and freedom. It was in the warmth of their political discussions, that the antients acquired that strength and vivacity of ideas, without which they would never have evinced how much the human intellect can achieve; and it was thus that the Greeks, possessing what the moderns would designate turbulent liberty, were of the two people the most ingenious. The inhabitants of Athens, of Rhodes, and of all the most democratical cities, were observed to surpass those of a more mixed form of government.'

According to the representations of M. Toulotte, Augustus was not a greater encourager of eloquence and learning than of the other liberal arts, and was by no means the munificent prince that he has been so generally represented, but required to be often reminded by Mæcenas of the duty of dispensing something more substantial than the sunshine of his smiles. "I conjure you," said his favorite minister, in his last testament, "to remember Horace as if he were myself." — Here, however, as in a few other points, the author is scarcely borne out in the severity of his strictures on the motives and qualities of Augustus by the evidence of contemporary writers, or by the more voluminous accounts contained in Hooke and Gibbon; whose representations, though unfavorable, do not leave the same disagreeable impression on the mind which is produced by the more prejudiced and impassioned tone adopted by M. Toulotte. In terms of unequalled reprobation, he thus concludes his account of the first imperial reign of the nephew of Cæsar, which is in every view so interesting to the literary and philosophical historian:

'Although the language and taste of the Romans received their last polish during the period of Augustus, real eloquence and the arts depending on the imagination were on the decline. It was a reign still more fatal to every kind of virtue; which suppressed where it did not quite extinguish the last sparks of patriotism in the heart of every citizen. What was left, it may be asked, by the artful policy of Augustus, inviolate in Rome? The private virtues of a few individuals, who were happy in escaping from his vigilance into obscurity; and a people not only degraded and enslaved, but prepared by his arts to endure a more arbitrary yoke, and rendered incapable of recovering their freedom by the luxury and effeminacy in which they were sunken. What were the remaining results of an usurpation of half a century, in which the example of an adroit villain was held up to future tyrants of equal ability as the safest model? They were results which went to prove that crimes might become legitimate, through the force of illustrious example; that impunity might be obtained for the most daring atrocities; and that the character of a great people might be degraded, who were once idolatrously devoted to liberty.' —(P. 248.)

'All just government was destroyed by the union, in one person, of the legislative and executive authorities; and the temper of the ruler was not long proof against *the right of acting every way as he pleased, and no way that he did not please*. Such innovations were, in part, the work of the servility of a senate that was but too ready to countenance the designs of a master who was trampling on the birthrights of a generous and aspiring people, in a country where not even the Decemvirs had been allowed to pass a law on their sole responsibility. It was reserved for the cautious and cruel policy of that Octavius, on whom terror and flattery conferred the surname of Augustus, to overturn the foundations of an empire which seven centuries of elevated virtue, and glorious victories, had raised up under the auspices of fortune, with a promise of future stability and success, during a long course of ages.' (P. 249.)

As few redeeming points occurred in the characters of the three princes who succeeded Augustus in the empire, it is nearly impossible for the present author to render himself obnoxious to the same charge of overloading his portraits with the darkness of their crimes, in describing the atrocities and desolation that marked the age of those emperors. The appalling picture is drawn with an able though rapid hand; and, from the very nature of the subject, so many acts of vengeance and terror are brought within such a limited view, and the calamities of Rome crowd so fast on each other, that, turning away in disgust, we gladly draw a veil over the scene. Yet the reign of Tiberius stands out conspicuous among the rest for the most important event that the world ever witnessed, the presence of the Messiah and the promulgation of his doctrines on the earth. We are at no loss to perceive much of the ironical tone, though under a slighter disguise of ridicule, which is employed by the author on this subject, in the same manner as by Gibbon; and to which we before alluded as being the common property of French writers, or of those who like Hume and Gibbon adapted themselves to the taste and the literature of France. It is, however, a weapon of so very puerile a kind,—for what is there that is not open to ridicule,—that it can never deserve serious refutation.

'While the progress of these horrors, worthy of the policy of the successors of Augustus, held the minds of men in suspence, Rome appeared not to pay the least attention to an event that was expected to renovate the face of the whole earth. At this period, Jesus Christ, our Saviour, was preaching the Gospel in Judæa, and laying the foundation of that spiritual monarchy which was commenced by the prophets, and was destined, by the pure virtue of the Word, to subdue all the kingdoms of the earth. However this may be, his trial, of which the proceedings were dispatched by Pilate to Tiberius, according to the custom of the governors, whose duty it was to furnish to the emperors an account of the most remarkable executions, added but little to his celebrity. Tacitus and Suetonius merely allude to him, in the manner in which we should speak in these times of some divinity who was acknowleged by an obscure people, sunken in the grossest ignorance and the most wretched credulity. Jesus was thus overwhelmed with opprobrium, and crucified between two thieves, in the 40th or 50th year of his age, according to St. Irenæus, but only the 30th by the calculation of Clement of Alexandria. From a tradition, however, which is preferred to both these testimonies, he is supposed to have been between 33 and 34 years of age.' (P. 284.)

The *soi-disant philosophical* spirit of this portion of the author's labors is too apparent to require farther comment or explanation from us; and not only in this but in other instances, he has not scrupled to forsake his own important and immediate subject for the pleasure of pursuing an episode. We must not, however, permit ourselves to follow his example: nor shall we enter on any useless commentary on the undistinguishing policy, and the mingled absurdities and atrocities, of Rome's more feeble and despicable emperors; whose influence over their respective ages and institutions formed only so many steps towards the grand consummation of her ruin. Even the brilliant examples which interrupted for a period their career of vice and folly, in the Antonines and Vespasians of their period, appeared only like spots of green on the oasis of the desert; as if to remind humanity, from time to time, that the principles of life and hope were not yet quite extinct. Among these tyrants, perhaps, the character of Tiberius has something more terrible and imposing than the rest. It displays a fixed and gloomy consistency, not unlike that of Philip II. of Spain; and there is, as it were, a withering power in his very name: but it manifests none of those tiger-freaks and tricks of blood, in which the Neros and Caligulas so much loved to indulge themselves, shewing how completely they had cast off all the bonds of our common nature. They were, like our own Charles II., the *merry* monarchs of torture, in their day; while Tiberius must be considered only as a melancholy man of blood. As M. Toulotte observes, he was not less guilty of usurpation than those among his predecessors who were more remarkable for the strength of their ambition. 'The government, which Augustus wished to preserve an aristocratic form, was in truth become monarchical; or, more pro-

perly,

perty, a complete despotism. "This rapid progress to supreme power is in the exact order of things; and to suppose that there should be a perpetual dictator, who would scruple to possess himself of the whole government, is to suppose, observes *Bodin*, that which is impossible." (P. 290.)

In the author's concluding remarks on the life of Claudius, he enters into a sort of parallel between that prince and Ferdinand I., one of the kings of Portugal. This, we think, is equally ill-judged and misplaced; while it is not a little forced and insignificant, like the characters themselves, which certainly did not merit the trouble of instituting a comparison between them. Similar errors of judgment, as we before remarked, are frequently repeated; and, if they do not derogate from the accuracy and fidelity of a history assuming the title of philosophical, they at least detract from its interest and utility, in as much as it is more philosophical to furnish curious facts and information than to draw stale comparisons. In other respects, however, and in more essential qualities, the work is deserving of its title; viz. in that appreciation and exposition of characters and events, and that penetration into the motives of action, which are so requisite in the real historian. The series and connection of incidents are also well arranged; the characters are brought boldly out upon the canvas; and the author observes the luminous order of narration much better than most French historians, not excepting *Voltaire* and the romantic *Vertôt*: thus preserving clear ideas in the reader's mind, which are farther assisted by marginal dates, and copious annotations on each of the lives, that are very favorable to the formation of forcible and distinct impressions.

We imagine that the author must have felt almost as greatly relieved as we are ourselves in taking leave of the first epoch of Rome's imperial age; a tissue of varied crime, proscriptions, and impious follies, under six emperors, (except Galba,) all regularly succeeding each other. In discussing the qualities of some of those princes who form so striking a contrast to their immediate predecessors, and who by their virtue and their valor so long retarded the downfall and seemed to renew the splendor of the old Roman fame, M. TOULOTTE becomes animated with the brighter prospect that opens to his view, and rises in eloquence and fervor in proportion to the increasing grandeur and importance of his subject. Such a race of princes, however, could not last; and, from their comparatively rare occurrence in these as in other times, they would seem to have been merely held up by heaven as a bright example, and a contrast, to shew the full deformity of their *opposites*, rather than with a prospect of re-establishing the foundations of the Roman empire. The glorious line was but too frequently interrupted; and the historian has again to deplore the recurrence of those crimes and atrocities which seemed to afford humanity little breathing time, and rendered the astonishing efforts of a few superior men, to restore the glory of their country, as transitory as their lives.

As Rome under these princes, however, had been exposed to all the worst evils growing out of the abuse of supreme power, so, under the noblest of her emperors, that power being directed only to great and beneficent purposes, created perhaps more than proportionate happiness and utility; and the reigns of Trajan and the Antonines are a striking illustration of the poet's idea of a form of government, when he exclaimed,

"That which is best administered is best:"

an axiom which, were the characters of princes a little more perfect, would be a little more just.

The prosperity of Rome and her provinces, under the most wise and valiant of her princes, forms a signal and rare example to display the height to which the fortunes and grandeur of a people may be carried beneath the sway of a single individual; and to prove how easily, in the same way likewise, they may be lost. For instance, we feel no difficulty in accounting for the admirable character and actions of a prince, or for the felicity and glory of his people, whose maxim it was "that no citizens ought to leave the presence of their emperor dissatisfied," and who lamented a day as lost that had produced no act of beneficence towards his subjects;—nor ought we to be surprized, on the other hand, at the sudden and rapid degeneracy which seemed to eclipse, in a moment, all the glory and brightness of the preceding epoch. It may be mentioned as a singular fact in the character of Titus, that his succession to the empire inspired real dread among the Romans, lest his early severity and cruelties towards the Christians should be afterward wreaked on the citizens; while the gentleness and diffidence of disposition, that were observed in the youth of Nero and Claudius, inspired Rome with hopes of a mild and favorable government. It is remarkable, also, that the memory of some of the greatest princes of the empire has been execrated by nearly all the Fathers and other ecclesiastical writers of the times, while many of them attempt even to palliate the vices and follies of the worst and weakest emperors. Several of the latter, it is true, neglected rather than forbore to employ the same harshness and violence which the former conceived it to be their policy to manifest, supposing, according to M. TOULOTTE, that, when the sect should become sufficiently powerful, they would throw aside the mask of moderation, and claim open interference in civil affairs. While he considers it as not creditable to the Christians to have been encouraged by the more weak and despicable rulers of Rome, he is eager to exonerate such as Trajan and the Antonines from the charges of oppression and cruelty that have been so generally preferred against them. This he uniformly attempts, at the close of their respective lives, in a manner not always consistent with historical authority and the evidence of facts: contenting himself with asserting it to be quite inconsistent with, and repugnant to, the magnanimity and humanity of such characters to sport with the lives of men on the mere ground of opinion, unless, which was frequently the fact, they interfered in some way in the civil government. In speaking of the conduct observed by Titus towards the Jews and the Christians, which is too notorious to be disputed, M. TOULOTTE, being compelled to admit the fact, expresses just indignation at the immolation of a crowd of Jews in honor of the Emperor Vespasian, and at their being exposed alive in the amphitheatres for the amusement of the Roman people. On this subject, the author mentions with commendation the works of Bishop Porteus and of Newton; opposing, however, on the authority of the learned *Perreciot*, their assertion of having proved, *à priori*, that no cause ever more effectually contributed to the emancipation of slaves and serfs than the establishment of Christianity.

The life of Trajan is perhaps more eloquently and powerfully written than any other; so rightly have the author's best efforts been given to a prince whose exploits transcended those of all who preceded or who followed him; and who, in the opinion of *Montesquieu*, was the most accomplished character that history has handed down to us. 'He banished,' observes M. TOULOTTE, 'the whole tribe of informers from Rome, convinced that they only fostered enemies to the state; and he adorned Italy with temples and edifices, of which Leo X. and the Medici aimed only at restoring the splendor and the grandeur. The ruins of his triumphal arch were sufficient for the construction of that of Constantine, and thus proved how far superior the architecture of his age must have been to that of the latter. — "The genius of this epoch of the empire," says M. *Garat*, "was composed of the Senecas, the Plutarchs, the Plinies, and Tacitus; while its spirit extended to the throne, and influenced the actions of Trajan and the Antonines." It continued to flourish during an entire age, forming one of the noblest and happiest eras of the human race.

On the virtues of Adrian, and the services which he rendered to philosophy and the arts, — on the establishment of professional schools of oratory and law, — and on the erection of lofty porticos and athenæums, — M. Toulotte dwells with evident pleasure; and he extols the munificence and amiable disposition of this prince in the most animated terms. — After having recounted the heroic virtues and exertions of a few more such characters, the author takes a general and rapid view of the alternate renovation and decline of power experienced by Rome under the succeeding reigns; in which weak and worthless characters continued, more and more feebly, to direct the destinies of the empire. In proportion, indeed, as the government resolved itself into a pure military despotism, it presents less interesting and valuable materials for the pen of the historian, and can only deserve to be held up for the purpose of a great national example as it continues to approach its close. The overwhelming number and increasing assassination of its princes, — its internal divisions and dismemberment, — the general decay of the national energies and character, — and the devastating torrent of barbarians from without, — proclaimed to the late subjugated world that the genius and fortunes of Rome had at length forsaken her:

"*Post mortem nihil est; — ipsaque mors nihil.*"

so completely, and yet so insensibly, did her glories perish and pass away.

We need not offer many additional remarks on the merits and execution of M. Toulotte's philosophical labors, and the rank which they are intitled to hold in the historical literature of his country. It must, we think, strike every reader that this History is evidently the production of a man of ability, of deep reflection and research, and, judging of his classical attainments from the authorities adduced, of extensive reading. His faults are neither of a very palpable nor a very dangerous kind; for we are not much afraid of French philosophy in matters of a high or religious import, nor of French democracy in the age in which we live. We could wish, indeed, that French rulers were a little more in awe of it; and it is quite pardonable — it is even honorable — that it occasionally gives a strong tinge to some of this author's political narrations. We moreover think that such a work is calculated to form a very pleasing and valuable addition to the philosophical literature, in which France is above all other nations avowedly so rich. It is more faithful and more profound than the writings of the Abbé *Vertot*, while it occupies the place of a supplement or continuation of his "Revolutions of the Roman Republic:" it has, also, greater genius and originality than the histories of an earlier age, or the more copious among the modern, from the pens of the *Rollins* and the *Bossuets* of their day; and it deserves rather to rank with the productions of the *Fleurys*, the *La Harpes*, or the *Voltaires* of the age which has disappeared.

Art. XI. *La Veuve; ou, L'Epitaphe*, &c.; *i. e.* The Widow; or, The Epitaph; a Novel, by Mlle. de Senancourt. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1822. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 14s.

Although the sarcastic *Epitaph*, which furnishes the second title of this novel, has no point or pith to make it worthy of attention, yet some of the letters evince an airy pleasantry which might, with a better story, have rendered the book attractive. The principal circumstances, however, are totally incredible, and the morality of the tale is at least questionable; since in vol. i. p. 212., as well as in other passages, the most amiable character here depicted is made to deny the Divine superintendence.

Art. XII. *Agnès de France*, &c.; *i. e.* Agnes of France; or, The Twelfth Century; an Historical Romance. By Mad. Simons-Candeille. 8vo. 3 Vols. 1821. Imported by Treuttel and Co. Price 1*l*.

The portion of history on which this novel is founded might receive from an able pen a high degree of romantic interest: but the present fair writer is evidently unequal to the task: her style is at once tame and turgid; and the circumstances which her own invention supplies are often at variance with the manners of the times, and of the people whom she attempts to describe. In consequence, the most striking events being insipidly narrated, and rendered improbable by the author's additions, the reader of these volumes is in imminent danger of what *Marmontel* has termed "*a moral indigestion.*"

INDEX

To the REMARKABLE PASSAGES in this Volume.

N.B. *To find any particular* Book, or Pamphlet, see the Table of Contents, *prefixed to the Volume.*

A

ABSORPTION of roots, essay on, 457.

Agriculture of Italy, particulars of, 158.

Alexander, See *Russia.*

All-fools' Day, paper on, 208. Origin of, 269.

Allouville, oak chapel at, account of, 455.

Altona, its religious toleration, 63.

America, steam-vessels in, 48, 49. Particulars relative to, and advice to emigrants, 305—312.

Amoreux, M., notice of M. Gouan, 461.

Amputation, at the hip-joint, case of, 376.

Amsterdam, account of, 363.

Analysis, of animal and vegetable substances, memoir on, 183.

Ants, sanguine, poetic description of, 99. Ants made into food by the American Indians, 346.

April 1., or All-fools' day, paper on, 208. Origin of, 269.

Arcadia, description of, 412.

Asparagus, mode of producing two crops in the year, 35.

Attraction of the moon on the earth, remarks on, 335. 448.

Augustus Cæsar, review of his character, 534, &c.

B

Bagshot Sand, memoir on, 230.

Banks, joint-stock, observations on, 417.

Barnoucova, rocks and cavern of, 227.

Bayle, observations on, 254.

Beans, mode of procuring a second crop of, 37.

Beauvois, See *Palisot.*

Bedouins of Egypt, description of, 162.

Belfast, account of, 441.

Bell, Mr., on the nerves connected with the chest, 175.

Bengal, geology of the north-east border of, 236.

Beritola, a tale, account of, 294.

Bermuda, mineralogical specimens of, 239.

Berneaud, See *Thiébaut.*

Bible, vast collection of editions of, 356.

Blood, on the buffy coat of, 174.

Boccaccio, supposed verses by, 55.

Body, offer by a person to sell his own body to a surgeon, 356.

Bohemia, some account of, 367.

Bohemian, character and creed of, 193.

Bonaparte, Napoleon, various anecdotes and particulars of, 78—93.

Bones, See *Buckland*, See *Indians.*

Brain, on diseased states of, 375.

Brazil, bad society there, 326.

Breislak, M., on gypsum, 239.

Brooke, James, his offer to sell his body to a surgeon, 356.

———, Dr., on liver-cough, 378.

Broussais, M., on febrile diseases, 498. 501.

Buckland, Professor, on fossil animal remains in Yorkshire, 170. On the excavation of valleys, 234.

Burial, ceremonies of, in antient and modern Italy, 157.

Burrel, Dr., a contributor to Rawleigh's History of the World, 259.

Buxton, Mr., his speech on negro-slavery quoted, 132. 140, 141, 142.

C

Cabbages, mode of preserving from caterpillars, 38.
Calcutta, on the geographical situation of, 185.
Camini, islands, account of, 459.
Canal, uniting the Baltic with the German ocean, 65.
Canterbury cathedral, account of, 280.
Carmichael, Mr., on amputation at the hip-joint, 376. On *Cynanche laryngea*, 377.
Chantrans, See *Girod*.
Chantrey, Mr., obs. on his monument for two children, 276.
Charles the Bald, vision of, the origin of Dante's *Inferno*, 254.
Cheetah, an animal in India employed to catch deer, 268.
Children, Mr., on alvine concretions in the colon, 168.
Chrichton, Sir Alexander, on fossil-shells, 239.
Christian, and his comrades, mutineers of the *Bounty*, poem on, 316.
Christ's Hospital, paper on, 204.
Cloth, belonging to a mummy, manufacture of, 38.
Colebrooke, Mr., on the valley of the Sutluj river, 234. On the geology of Bengal, 236.
Colon, concretions in, 168. Remarks on the office of, 325.
Conception, observations on that faculty, 431.
Condemnations, in England and France in a series of years, 92.
Conjurors, that term derived from the *Cunjoors* of India, 269.
Contagion, See *Plague*.
Conybeare, Mr., on the Ichthyosaurus, &c., 234.
Cooper, Mr., on the state of the slaves in the West Indies, 136. 140.
Copper-mine, notice of, 238.
Cork, population of, 245.
Corrosive sublimate, obs. on, 179. Case of recovery from, 380.
Cortes of Spain, powers of, in various ages, 521.
Cough, hepatic, case of, 378.
Crawford, Lord, commander of the Scottish archers, description of, 197.
Cromwell, and Bonaparte, parallel between, drawn by the latter, 89.
Crow and the Fox, a fable, 101.
Crystallography, theory relative to, 505.
Crystals, on the state of water, &c. in cavities of, 179.
Currency, plan for the regulation of, 421.
Cynanche laryngea, case of, 377.
Cynanchum Monspeliacum, its power of retaining insects within its calyx, 451.

D

Dacre, Lady, her versions of Petrarch, 393—395, 398.
Dante, supposed origin of his *Inferno*, 254. Compared with Petrarch, 397.
Datura arborea, its juice affects the eyes, 451.
D'Avaray, M., his fidelity to Louis XVIII., 222.
Davy, Sir H., on electrical phenomena, 169. On water, &c. in cavities of crystals, 179.
——, Dr., on the buffy coat of the blood, 174. On corrosive sublimate, 179.
Death, Book of, anecdotes from, 260. Thoughts on, 262.
De la Beche, Mr., on the geology of the south coast of England, 229. Of the coast of France, 232. On fossil-plants in Savoy, 237.
De la Marck, the "Boar of Ardennes," picture of, 195.
De la Vega, See *Garcilasso*.
Delhi, mineralogical particulars of, 236.
Desert of Egypt, great dangers in passing, 12.
Deucalion, story of, poetically told, 51.
Dhole, a non-descript animal in India, 268.

Digestion, inquiry whether vegetables digest, 456.

Disbanding, of a regiment, described, 26.

Dog, killed by mistake, poetic story of, 18.

Downpatrick, its wretched gaol, 242.

Drovetti, M., his claims to the discovery of a new Oasis, 160.

Dublin, bad state of its prisons, 241.

Dumont d' Urville, M., on plants in the Archipelago, 453. On volcanic islands, 459.

Dungannon, its horrible gaol, 241.

D'Urville, See *Dumont*.

E

Earle, Mr., on the spine, 174.

Ears, chapter on, 206.

Education, in Germany, remarks on, 369.

Egg, on the changes of, 178, 179.

Electrical phænomena, memoir on, 169.

Elephants, anecdotes of, 267.

Emigrants to America, advice to, 306.

Emphysema, case of, 375.

England, her power and that of Russia considered, 483. How far her population is affected by war, 484.

Erethism, symptoms of, 375.

Eruptions, artificial, their good effects in some diseases, 32. Cases of eruptive diseases, 374.

Eye, on the structure of, 170.

F

Falloon, Dr., on a diseased heart, 379.

Faraday, Mr., on the alloys of steel, 175.

Fazio, specimens of a play on the story of, 39.

Ferdinand VII., King of Spain, bad character given of him by his mother, 118.

Fever, on the pathology and treatment of, 373. 381. Report of the Fever Asylum at Cork, 377. At Dublin, 380. 382. Theory of M. Broussais respecting, 498. On intermittent fevers, 500.

Flogging, of the slaves in the West Indies, account of, 135.

Foscolo, Ugo, memoir of, 510.

Fossil-bones, account of, 170. Of fossil-remains in Dorsetshire, 229. Of fossil-plants in Savoy, 237. Of fossil-shells, 239.

France, King of, narrative of his escape from Paris, 221. (See also *Louis*.) Coast of, on the geology of, 232. Objections to the idea of the former union of the coasts of France and England, 233. Table of schools in, 480. Obliged to choose a political protector, 483.

Fraser, Mr., his mineralogical collections, 236.

Frederick the Great, inquiry into his literary powers, 490. His remarks on religion, policy, and military affairs, 492—496.

Free-masonry, on the antiquity of, 444.

Fresh-water formation, memoir on, 233.

Fuller's earth, notice on, 238.

G

Gangrene, case of, 378.

Garcilasso, a Spanish poet, specimens of his translated verses, 401—404.

Gasc, M., on life, &c., 453.

Gastro-enteritis, remarks on, 498. 502.

Genera, on the forms which distinguish, 452.

Geography, See *Goldingham*.

Geology of Russia, 225. Of the south coast of England, 229. Of the coast of France, 232. Of Bengal, 236.

Germany, on the state of education in, 369. Its manufactures, &c., 370. The Germans an indolent people, 371.

Ghor, products of, 8.

Girod de Chantrans, M., on the

INDEX.

[illegible] which distinguish ge- [illegible]
Glen Tilt, remarks on, 231.
Goldingham, Mr., on the geographical situation of Calcutta, &c., 185. On the difference of longitudes, &c., 186.
Gouan, Prof., notice of, 461.
Gour, a wild bullock, account of, 266.
Grattan, Dr., on a case of gangrene, 378. His report of the Dublin Fever Hospital, 380.
Greeks, modern, observations on their advancement in literature, &c., 406—411.
Grinders, account of, 109.
Guinard, M., his table of schools in France, 480.
Gyllenborg, Count, memoir of, 511.
Gypsum, memoir on, 239.

H

Haarlem, view from the church of, 362.
Hæmorrhage from the spleen, case of, 374.
Haouran, inhabitants of, 1.
Harrison, Dr., on hæmorrhage, 374.
Heart, diseased, case of, 379.
Helvetia, poetic address to, 16.
Hofer, Andrew, memoir of, 512.
Holland, particulars relative to, 361—364.
Home, Sir Everard, on a new species of rhinoceros, 168. His Croonian lecture, on the eye, 170. On the teeth, &c. of seals, 173. On the changes of the egg, 178. On the placenta, 181.
Hordwell, See *Webster*.
Horses, Andalusian, anecdote of their destruction of one another, 123, 124.
Hudibras, remarks on, 257. Translated into French by Colonel Townley, not Townsend, *ib.*
Hulls, Mr., his patent for steamboats, 47, 48.
Hume, Mr., his negligence in writing history, 253.
Hydrocephalus, account of, [illegible]
Hymn, Tuesday morning, 251.
Jack, Mr., on the rocks of Penang, 238.
Jamaica, treatment of slaves there, 133. 135. 137.
Java, culture of lands in, 458.
Ichneumons, their mode of attacking snakes, 269.
Ichthyosaurus, notices on, 234.
Jealousy, curious American story of, 357.
Jesuit's double-faced creed, 355.
Jews, at Tiberias, account of, 5.
Images, similar worship of, in antient and modern Italy, 149.
Imagination, remarks on, 431.
Indians, bones of an unknown race, 340. Account of the Missouri Indians, 345. Food of, made of ants, 346. The Omawhaws, 347. Their apologues, 350.
Indigo, manufactured in Egypt, 166.
Inferno, of Dante, derived from a *Vision of Charles the Bald*, 254.
Institution projected by Bonaparte for the education of princes, 86.
Instruction, blessings of, 252.
Intellect, *disadvantages* of superiority in, 60.
Intermittent fevers, obs. on, 500.
Interpretations, mystical, of Scripture, 437, 438.
Johnson, Dr., on Planaria, 182.
Joint-stock Banks, See *Banks*.
Jomard, M., his work on the Oasis of Thebes, &c., 160.
Jordan, Valley of, its productions, 8.
Ireland, its prisons, infirmaries, cottages, population, &c., 240—246. Manufactures of, 248.
Ireland, Dr., on emphysema, 375.
Irritations, [illegible]

Ismael, siege of, poetically depicted, 320.

Italy, modern, usages of, compared with those of the old Romans, 148—159. On the agriculture of, 158.

K

Kirkdale, cave there, full of fossil-animal remains, 170.

Knox, Mr., on the Newry pitch-stone, 178.

L

Laura, Petrarch's mistress, not inexorable, 388. Her character, 390.

Lead-ore, on specimens of, 238.

Learned men, their supposed ignorance, 57.

Lefebure, M., on *order* in natural history, 451. His eulogy on Tournefort, 460.

Leipsic, cause of its commercial superiority, 368.

Lendrick, Mr., case of recovery from corrosive sublimate, 380.

Lichfield cathedral, hist. of, 274.

Life, and organic molecules, reflections on, 453.

Light-houses, proposal for making them known in foggy weather, 423. *note*.

Lime-stone, on a deposit of, 238.

Linnean Society of Paris, composition of, 450.

Literature, &c., in Portugal, view of, 481.

Lockstedt, farewell to, 67.

Longitudes, on the difference of, 186.

Lotteries, of former days, 359.

Love in the wilds, an American story, 357.

Louis XVIII., his application when in exile to Bonaparte, and the answer of the latter, 84. See also *France*.

Lubeck, picture of, 64.

M

Macculloch, Dr., on quartz rocks, 230. On Glen Tilt, 231.

M'Keever, Dr., on a ruptured vagina, 379.

Madeira, on modes of cultivating grapes there, 159. note.

Madras, geographical situation of, 185.

Magnets, directions for making, 184.

Mainotes, account of, 414.

Manganese, on the black oxide of, 239.

Marcet, Dr., on sea-water, 182.

Marquis, M., on the oak-chapel at Allouville, 455.

Marriage, among the people of Hauran, 8.

Maupas, J. L. Rast de, notice of, 460.

Mauricet, M., on vegetable nutrition, 456.

Melæna, case of, 379.

Memory, definition of, 433.

Mercury, use of, the occasion of gangrene, 378.

Mississippi and Missouri, expedition to explore those rivers, 337.

Monks, abundance of, in Portugal, 475.

Mungoose, See *Ichneumons*.

Muscology, treatise on, 454.

N

Negroes, See *Slavery*, See *St. Helena*.

Nerves, eighth pair, on the division of, 167. Connected with the chest, memoir on, 175.

Newry pitch-stone, experiments on, 178.

Newspapers, readers of, in Spain, 71. Great number of, in the United States, 311.

Nicholl, Dr., on states of the brain, 375. On a case of melæna, 379.

Noises, odd remarks on, 206.

Nostoch, on the different denominations of, &c., 454.

Nutrition, memoir on, 456.

O

Oak Chapel, account of, 455.

Oases, visit to, and a new one described, 160. Climate and inhabitants, 165.

O'Brien, Dr., his report of the Fever Hospital, &c., in Dublin, 382.
O'Grady, Major, character of, 29.
Ohio, scenery on the banks of, 338. Amazing extent of, 339.
Oil produced from radishes, 40.
Oneida, lake of, the scene of a curious love-story, 357.
Orange-institutions, account of, 94, 95.
Oratory, remarks on, 107.
Order, on the principle of, 451.
Oxford cathedral, description of, 278.

P

Palisot de Beauvois, M., his muscology, 454.
Parkes, Mr., on the black oxide of manganese, 239.
Parodies, remarks on, 257.
Pasteboard, curious manufactory of, 65.
Penang, on the rocks of, 238.
People, the sovereign power resident in and resumable by, 531.
Perrottet, M., on the preservation of vegetables, 458. On agriculture in Java, *ib.*
Perspective, observations on studying, 331.
Pestilence, See *Plague*.
Petrarch, essays on his love, poetry, and character, 386—399.
Philip, Dr., on the Voltaic battery, 167.
Pickels, Mr., his report of the Fever Asylum at Cork, 377.
Placenta, memoir on, 181.
Plague, history and treatment of it, 282—292. 514—518. Remedy for, 285.
Planaria, observations on, 182.
Poetry, sacred, difficulty of writing, 249. Specimens of, 251.
Plant that deliquesces in water, memoir on, 454.
Plants, of the Archipelago, &c. catalogue of, 453. New division of plants, 452.
Pope Joan, anecdote respecting, 260.
Population of Ireland, not easily ascertained, 245. That of Cork, taken in part, *ib.* Of the United States, 308. Of Gotha, 365. Of Prussia, 368. Of Berlin, 369. Of Portugal, 472. Remarks on, as affected by war, 484.
Porter, vat of, its bursting causes the death of eight persons, 36.
Portugal, history of the war in, 117. Statistical particulars respecting, 463—482.
Prisons, &c. of Ireland, remarks on, 240.
Prout, Dr., on changes of the egg, 179.
Prussia, King of, portrayed by Bonaparte, 80. Queen of, her fruitless interview with Napoleon, 81. Its population, extent, palaces, &c. 368. See *Frederick*.
Purpleman, obligation of, 96.

Q

Quaker's meeting, remarks on, 207.
Quarles, his "Midnight Meditations," 261.
Quartz-rocks, remarks on, 230.

R

Radish, Chinese, yields excellent oil, 40.
Ratzeburg, its beautiful situation, 64.
Rawleigh, Sir Walter, his *History of the World* not his own production merely, 259. Names of contributors to it, *ib.*
Reid, Dr., on fever, 373.
Reviewers, observations on, 60.
Revolutions of England and France, parallel between, drawn by Bonaparte, 88.
Reynier, M., on the culture of the vine, 458.
Rhine, Confederation of, history of, 313.
Rhinoceros, new species of, 168.

Riego, the Spanish commander, portrait of, 76.
Robagiri, mineralogy of, 238.
Robertson, Mr., his mission to the Marquis Romana, 124.
Robinson, Dr., on eruptive diseases, 374.
Rocks, of Attica, notice on, 239.
Romana, Marquis, anecdotes of the escape of his troops from Denmark, 123, 124.
Romans, antient, manners and customs among, existing in modern Italy, 148—159. View of, under the emperors, 533—548.
Ross, Alex., his *Mystagogus Poeticus*, 458.
Rousseau, J. J., anecdotes of, 461, 462, 463 *note*.
Russia, Emperor of, characterized by Bonaparte, 79. Geology of, 225. Russia and England, observations on the political power of, 483.

S

St. Helena, improved treatment of slaves there, 136.
St. Mary's isle, account of, 425.
Saints of antient and modern Italy compared, 148.
Sal gem, experiments on, 508.
Saragossa, siege of, 121.
Sargent, Mr., on fuller's earth, 238.
Schools, in France, table of, 480.
Scilly, isles of, and their inhabitants, 423—429.
Scoresby, Mr., on the magnetic properties of steel, 184.
Scotland, verses on the devotional character of, 211.
Scott, Mr., on specimens from Robagiri, 238.
Sea-water, on the saline contents of, 182.
Seals, on the teeth and skull of, 173.
Shadows, in drawing, rules for, 333.
Shepherdess, verses on, 402, 403.
Shipwreck, plan for the preservation of lives from, 443.
Shovel, Sir Cloudesley, account of his shipwreck, 423.
Sicily, antient customs in, 148—159.
Slavery, in the West Indies, state of, 127—145. See *Saint Helena*, See *Jamaica*. — In the United States, remarks on, 309, 310.
Slave-trade, particulars relative to that yet existing traffic, 109.
Snake-catchers, account of, 269.
Sneezing, customs respecting, 157.
Soho, the manufactory of Mr. Boulton, account of, 47.
Spain, description of one of the female patriots of, 69. Newspaper-readers in, 71. Bonaparte's own account of his attack on, 83. History of the war in, and in Portugal, 116—127. Account of the Cortes of, 521.
Spine, on the mechanism of, 174.
Spleen, on hæmorrhage from, 374.
Stanhope, Lady Hester, eulogy on, 7.
Steam-engine, history of, 44. Account of steam-boats, 47, 48.
Steel, on the alloys of, 173. On the magnetic properties of, 184.
Steppes, of Russia, geology of, 229.
Stodart, Mr., on the alloys of steel, 173.
Stokes, Mr., on specimens of lead ore, 238. On compact lime-stone, *ib.*
Strangways, Mr., on the geology of Russia, 225.
Suez, modern state of, 11.
Sutluj river, See *Colebrooke*.

T

Tabaria, account of, 4.
Taylor (Mr. John) on a copper-mine at Cally, 238.
——— (William), on *imagination*.

tion, and its synonyms, 432. On *memory*, 433.
Temple, in Upper Egypt, new discovery of, 163. 166.
Temples, heathen, of antient Italy, converted into churches, 153.
Theophrastus, on the botany of, 457.
Thiébaut de Berneaud, M., on opinions relative to Nostoch, 454.
——— ———, Arsenne, M., on the botany of Theophrastus, 457. On plants known under the name of *Ulva*, 459. Notice of M. Maupas, 460.
Tiberias, account of, 4.
Titanite, crystals of, in Glen Tilt, 231.
Tobacco, story of Sir Walter Raleigh smoking, 41. Other particulars respecting, 42.
Tournefort, eulogy on, 460.
Trajan, his high character, 542.
Troncin, M., on the absorption of roots, 457.

U and V

Vagina, ruptured, case of, 379.
Valley of the Sutluj river, geology of, 234.
Valleys, on the excavation of, 234.
Vallot, Dr., on insects on the vine, 453. On the plant that deliquesces, and on Nostoch, 454.
Vaudois, some account of the people of, 213. Verses on, 214.
Vegetables, inquiry whether they digest, 456. On the preservation of, 458.
Verses, equivocal, 355.
Vetch, Capt., on the mineralogy of the Bermudas, 239.
Vimeiro, battle of, 122.
Vine, cultivation of, in Italy, 158. In Madeira, 159. *note*. A variety of, which ripens three crops in the year, 451. On insects that live on it, 453. On its culture among the Greeks, 458.
Virgin, holy, homage paid to, in Italy and Sicily, 152.
Ulva, on plants known by that name, 459.
Volcanic islands, notice on, 459.
Voltaic battery, on the influence of, 167.
Ure, Dr., on the analysis of vegetable substances, 183.

W

Warburton, Mr., on the Bagshot sand, 230.
Washington, General, his letter on the married life, 353.
Webster, Mr., on a fresh-water formation, 233.
West Indies, state of negro-slavery in, 127—145.
Wheat, species of, which produces two crops, 42, 43.
Wolf, prairie, its great sagacity, 344.
Wood, petrified, near Cairo, 10.
Woods, Mr., on the rocks of Attica, 239.
Worms, in the intestines, *poetic* remarks on, 215.
Worship, public, in the Highlands, poetically described, 210.

Z

Zaragossa, account of the siege of, 121.

END OF VOL. CI. OF THE NEW SERIES.

London:
Printed by A. & R. Spottiswoode,
New-Street-Square.

Stanford University Libraries
3 6105 007 348 167

STANFORD UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES
CECIL H. GREEN LIBRARY
STANFORD, CALIFORNIA 94305-6004
(415) 723-1493

All books may be recalled after 7 days

DATE DUE

AUG 1 3 2001
AUG 1 2 2001